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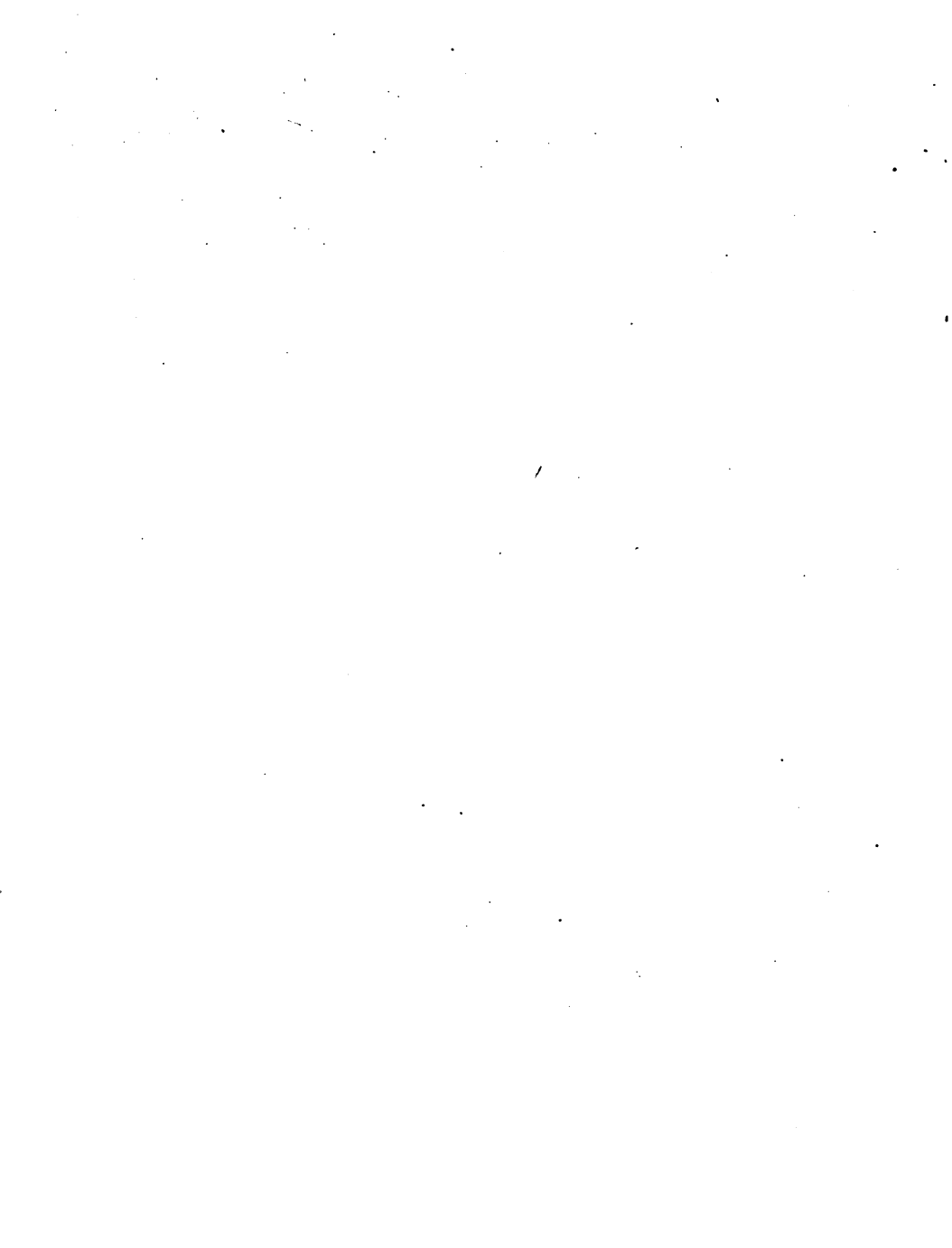


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Parallel Grammar Series

A

WELSH GRAMMAR FOR SCHOOLS

*BASED ON THE PRINCIPLES AND REQUIREMENTS OF
THE GRAMMATICAL SOCIETY*

BY

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2

PART II—SYNTAX



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PREFACE

THE need has long been felt for a Welsh Syntax which would exhibit, in a lucid and systematic manner, the characteristic features of the language, without doing violence to its history on the one hand, or, on the other, ignoring the present state of its development. With this in view, the Author of this work has endeavoured throughout to distinguish clearly between the probable constructions of the parent Celtic speech and the actual constructions of modern Welsh, as shown, for example, in the difference between the extinct and the living uses of such words as *mai*, *pe*, and the pre-verbal particles *a* and *yr* (*y*). In Welsh philology a clearer distinction between the probable origin of forms and their present uses is urgently needed. To obscure divergences between earlier and later meanings of forms, in the case of any language, is to lose sight of the principles which have governed its whole history.

The Author wishes to express his best thanks to the General Editor of this series, Prof. Sonnenschein, for invaluable assistance in the preparation of this book; to those previous Welsh grammarians, without whose diligent and faithful care in preserving the tradition of the literary language this work would not have been possible; to Principal Rhys and Professors Powel and John Morris Jones, whose conversations with the Author on these matters have always afforded him many valuable suggestions, which he has carefully treasured in his memory; to Dr. J. A. H. Murray, of Oxford, whose clear exposition of some of the principles of language has been a help in many difficulties; and to his brother, the Rev. J. Bodvan Anwyl, for valuable help in the preparation of the Index.

ABERYSTWYTH, 1899.

E. ANWYL.

CONTENTS OF SYNTAX

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	81
SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION :	
Subject	89
Predicate	90
Predicate Adjective or Noun	92
Object	94
Two Objects	97
Predicate Adjective or Noun referring to the Object	99
Attributes	99
Kinds of Sentence	100
COMPLEX SENTENCE :	
Adverb Clauses and Phrases	108
Adjective Clauses	122
Noun Clauses and Phrases	126
Reported Speech	134
MEANINGS OF FORMS :	
Dependent Noun	136
Prepositions	139
Voices	153
Tenses	154
Tenses of the Indicative	155
Moods :	
Subjunctive	162
Imperative	163
Verb-noun and Verb-adjectives	164
Pronouns, etc.	169
Article	172
Adverbs	173
Words Representing Sentences, etc.	175
APPENDIX	176
INDEX	179

INTRODUCTION TO SYNTAX.

Syntax is the part of grammar which treats of the construction of sentences.

For the classification of sentences see §§ 339-345.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

Subject and Predicate.

- 301 The sentence usually consists of two main parts, the Subject and the Predicate. The Subject is the word or group of words denoting that about which something is said in the Predicate; the Predicate is what is said about that which is denoted by the Subject, and it includes not only the Verb, but also any Predicate-adjective or Predicate-noun or Object or Adjunct (or combination of these) with which it may be joined. Such additions to the Verb will be spoken of as the Remainder of the Predicate. Note that in all cases the Predicate includes the *whole* of what is said about that which is denoted by the Subject.

- 302 These two parts of the sentence may be contained in a single word: *e.g.* *canant, they sing.*

- 303 The Normal Order of the Welsh sentence is Verb—Subject—Remainder of Predicate.

- 304 The Predicate may assume any of the following five forms:—

FORMS OF THE PREDICATE.

	VERB.	SUBJECT.	REMAINDER OF PREDICATE.	
I	cân	y dŷn		
II	māe	y dŷn	Predicate Noun or Adjective. yn* frenin or yn* ddā	
III	gwelodd †	y dŷn	Object. y bachgen	
IV	rhoddodd †	y dŷn	Two Objects. lyfr i'r bachgen	
V	galwodd †	y dŷn	Object. ef	Pred. Noun or Adjective. yn* frenin or yn* ddā

* The word 'yn' which usually precedes the Predicate-noun or Predicate-adjective is probably a remnant of one of the forms of the Brythonic definite article. A *Predicate-noun* or adjective is a noun or adjective *predicated* of the Subject or the Object.

† Verbs which generally take an Object are called **transitive**. Verbs which generally take no Object are called **intransitive**.

Inverted Order. (See Appendix.)

- 305 The normal order of the sentence is frequently changed for the sake of emphasis, the emphatic word or group of words being put at the beginning of the sentence.—Thus the Subject or the Object or the Predicate-adjective or the Predicate-noun or the Adjunct may be put before the Verb. In such cases the word *a* or *yr* (*y*) is put immediately before the verb as shewn in the following examples.* (Cf. *Accidence*, § 194, 2nd ed.)

With Predicate of Form I :—

y dŷn a gān, 'the *man* sings'; 'it is the man who sings.'
y dŷn sydd yma, 'the *man* is here'; 'it is the man who is here.'

With Predicate of Form II :—

brenin yw y dŷn, 'the man is a *king*'; 'it is a king that the man is.'
dā yw y dŷn, 'the man is *good*': 'it is good that the man is.'

Similarly with a Predicate-pronoun :

myfi yw, 'it is I'; *pŵy yw?* 'who is it?'

With Predicate of Form III :

y bachgen a welodd y dŷn,† 'the man saw *the boy*'; 'it was the boy that the man saw.'

With Predicate of Form IV :—

- (a) *llyfr a roddodd y dŷn i'r bachgen*, 'the man gave the boy a *book*'; 'it was a book that the man gave the boy.'
 (b) *i'r bachgen y rhoddodd y dŷn lyfr*, 'the man gave *the boy* a book'; 'it was to the boy that the man gave a book.'

With Predicate of Form V :—

- (a) *ēf a alwodd y dŷn yn frenin*, 'the man called *him* king'; 'it was he whom the man called king.'
 (b) *yn frenin y galwodd y dŷn ef*, 'the man called him *king*'; 'it was a king that the man called him.'

Similarly where an Adjunct is emphasised: e.g. *yno yr aeth*, 'he went *there*'; 'it was there that he went.'

* When the Subject or the Object is put first, *a* is employed, in other cases *yr* or *y*; *yr* before vowels and *h*; *y* before consonants. The forms from *wyf* etc., *oeddwn* etc. and *sŷdd*, do not take *a*.

† Observe the possible ambiguity between Subject and Object in sentences of this type.

Attributes.

- 306 Any noun (whether standing in the Subject or in the Predicate) may be qualified by an adjective (or adjective-equivalent, § 310); e.g. *gŵr dōeth, a wise man*; *cyfeillion hōff, dear friends*. Such a qualifying part of the sentence is called an **Attribute**.

Adjuncts.

- 307 Any verb, adjective or adverb in the sentence may be qualified by an adverb (or adverb-equivalent, § 311):
 e.g. *ymladdodd y dyn yn ddewr, the man fought bravely*.
mae yn weithiwr trâ diwyd, he is an exceedingly diligent workman.
cerddodd yn bŵr gyflym, he walked rather rapidly.
 Such a qualifying part of the sentence is called an **Adjunct**.

Equivalents.

- 308 The noun, the adjective and the adverb may be replaced by other parts of speech doing the same work in the sentence, or by a group of words doing the work of a single part of speech. A word or group of words which replaces a noun, an adjective or an adverb is called an **Equivalent** (Noun-equivalent, Adjective-equivalent or Adverb-equivalent).

A group of words forming an Equivalent and not having a Subject and Predicate of its own is called a **Phrase**.

A group of words forming an Equivalent and having a Subject and Predicate of its own is called a **Subordinate Clause**. (cf. § 312).

For a list of noun-, adjective-, and adverb-equivalents see §§ 309-311.

Noun-, Adjective-, and Adverb-Equivalents.

NOUN-EQUIVALENTS.

- 309 A noun-equivalent may be—

- (a) A pronoun: e.g. *buost ti yno, thou hast been there*.
- (b) An adjective, with or without the article: e.g. *cyfoethogion, rich men*; *y cyfoethogion, the rich*; *y gwlr, the true*.

- (c) A verb-noun * : *e.g.* hyfryd ydyw gweithio, *it is pleasant to work* (lit. *working is pleasant*); ceisiaf weled, *I shall try to see.*
- (d) A phrase consisting of a verb-noun and words connected therewith : *e.g.* dywedodd fod dynion yno, *he said that there were men there* (lit. *the being of men there*).
- (e) A verb-adjective preceded by the article : *e.g.* yr anfonedig, *the person sent.*
- (f) A clause in a complex sentence : *e.g.* dywedodd nad oedd dynion yno, *he said that there were no men there.*
- (g) A word or group of words quoted : *e.g.* heb 'os' nac 'onibâe,' *without 'if' or 'were it not.'*

ADJECTIVE-EQUIVALENTS.

310 An adjective-equivalent may be—

- (a) A verb-adjective : *e.g.* gwelliant addawedig, *a promisee's improvement.*
- (b) A noun depending on another noun, corresponding to the genitive of Greek and Latin : *e.g.* llais dŷn, *the voice of a man.*
- (c) A noun or verb-noun used as an adjective : *e.g.* wal gerrig, *a stone wall*; carreg ateb, *an echo*, (lit. *an answering stone*; i.e. *a stone for answering.*)
- (d) A noun in apposition : *e.g.* ni ddynion, *we men.*
- (e) A noun governed by a preposition : *e.g.* llain o frethyn, *a piece of cloth.*
- (f) An adverb : *e.g.* y dynion gynt, *the men of old.*
- (g) A clause in a complex sentence : *e.g.* pell yw y llê y bum ynddo, *far is the place where I have been.*

ADVERB-EQUIVALENTS.

311 An adverb-equivalent may be—

- (a) A noun corresponding to an oblique case of Greek and Latin : *e.g.* arhosaf dridiau, *I shall stay three days*; cerddasant filldir, *they walked a mile.*
- (b) A noun governed by a preposition : *e.g.* âf at y tŷ, *I shall go towards the house*; trwy drais, *by force*; gyda thrafferth, *with difficulty.*

* The verb-noun, though in many respects treated as a noun in Welsh, yet, in some important respects, takes the construction of a verb :

e.g. dan alw y dŷn yn ffôl, *calling the man foolish*, like
geilw y dyn yn ffôl, *he calls the man foolish.*

- (c) A phrase formed by means of a verb-noun governed by prepositions: *e.g. cyn dyfod, before coming; er dyfod, in spite of coming.*
- (d) A clause in a complex sentence: *e.g. synnodd pan welodd, he marvelled when he saw.*

The Simple and the Complex Sentence.

- 312 1. aeth i'w dy, *he went into his house.*
 2. aeth i'w dy, pan orphenodd, *he went into his house, when he had finished.*

A sentence like (1), which contains only one group of words having a Subject and a Predicate, is called **Simple** [Lat. simplex = *one fold*].

A sentence like (2), which contains—

- (a) a Principal group, having a Subject and a Predicate of its own,
 (b) a Subordinate group, having a Subject and a Predicate of its own, is called **Complex**, and each of the groups is called a **Clause** (cf. §§ 308, 313).

Principal Clause.

Aeth i'w dy,

Subordinate Clause.

pan orphenodd.

Kinds of Subordinate Clause.

- 313 Subordinate Clauses may be classified according to the part of speech to which they are akin:—

1. **Noun Clauses**: *i.e.* Clauses playing the part of a noun.
2. **Adjective Clauses**: *i.e.* Clauses playing the part of an adjective.
3. **Adverb Clauses**: *i.e.* Clauses playing the part of an adverb.

OBS.—It should be borne in mind, in studying Welsh Syntax, that:—

(1) Some sentences now treated as simple sentences of 'Inverted Order,' were probably in origin complex sentences. See Appendix.

(2) Some sentences which express the meaning of a complex sentence are simple in form:

e.g. dywedodd ei fod yn glāf, he said that he was ill, lit. he said his being ill.

On the other hand, *dywedodd nad oedd yn glāf, he said that he was not ill*, is a complex sentence.

Co-ordinating Conjunctions.

- 314 1. Two or more sentences, clauses, phrases or single words linked together by one of the following conjunctions are called Co-ordinate, and the conjunctions which link them together are called Co-ordinating conjunctions :—

a, ac, <i>and</i>	nac, na, <i>nor</i>	
ond, <i>either, but</i>	canys,	
neu, }	oherwydd, }	<i>for</i>
ai, }	oblegid	
ynte, }		

OBS.—The forms ac and nac are generally used before words beginning with a vowel and frequently before adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions beginning with f, h, m or n.

2. It sometimes happens that the first member of a group linked together by one of the above conjunctions may be introduced by a word which serves to bring out more clearly its relation to what follows. Thus we get the following pairs :—

naill ai—ynte	<i>or</i> neu,	<i>either—or</i>
nac—nac		<i>neither — nor</i>

Subordinating Conjunctions.

- 315 1. All conjunctions other than those given above are Subordinating conjunctions, introducing either Noun Clauses or Adverb Clauses.
2. In almost all affirmative subordinate clauses of normal order, the verb is preceded by the proclitic particle yr (before vowels and h), y (before consonants).
3. In many Adverb Clauses, the subordinating conjunction is identical with some preposition.
4. In affirmative subordinate clauses of inverted order, the emphatic word of the clause is preceded by the conjunction mai. (For the probable explanation see Appendix.)
5. In negative subordinate clauses, nad (nā) is substituted for yr (y), nad for mai of the corresponding affirmative clause.

Examples :—

dywedais yr awn yno,	'I said I should go there.'	(Aff.)
" nad ,, ,,	'I said I should not go there.'	(Neg.)
" mai yno yr awn	'I said I should go <i>there</i> .'	(Aff.)
" nad ,, ,, "	'I said I should not go <i>there</i> .'	(Neg.)

SYNTAX.

PART I. SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION.

THE SUBJECT.

316 1. In a sentence of normal order in Modern Welsh, the Subject follows the Verb, so that it may be looked upon as the word which indicates the source of the action denoted by the Verb, the Verb in a sentence of normal order occupying the more prominent position.

2. The Predicate could, therefore, be very naturally discussed first, but as it assumes various forms, it is convenient first to discuss the Subject.

3. In Welsh, as in other languages, the Subject is either a noun or a noun-equivalent.

4. Subject not expressed by a separate word.

As in Greek and Latin and some other languages, the Subject is not expressed by a separate word when it is sufficiently indicated by the verb-ending :

e.g. gwelais, *I saw.* ymddengys, *it appears.*
 chwiliodd, *he searched.* aethom, *we went.*

OBS. 1.—If the Verb is preceded by a post-vocalic accus. pronoun (see *Accidence*, § 130), the Subject, if a pronoun, is practically never expressed in Welsh :

e.g. yno y'm gwelsant, *it was there that they saw me* ; not —yno y'm gwelsant hwy.

OBS. 2.—On the other hand, in a negative sentence, the post-vocalic pers. pron. S. 3 cannot be used after *nî*, so that *ef* (following the verb) must be employed instead :

e.g. *nî* cheir *ef*, *he is not found* ; not, *nî'l* cheir.

5. Not unfrequently, when the Subject is already sufficiently obvious, or where it would be expressed in English by *they* (=people in general), *one* (=French *on*, German *man*), *things* or *it* (=the situation in general, French *il*, German *es*), or where

the intrinsic interest of the action lies in itself, Welsh employs the impersonal forms of the verb: e.g. *cychwynir*, *a start will be made*: *eir yno yfory*, *some one will go there to-morrow*. This impersonal use was probably the only original use of the impersonal forms of Welsh. (See Accidence, § 178.) Cf. Latin Grammar, P.G.S. § 316*.

6. Verbs denoting phases of the weather.—In the case of verbs denoting phases of the weather, the impersonal forms are not employed in Welsh. Such verbs take the personal form with the simple personal pronoun *hi* (S. 3. Feminine), as Subject. The Subject is not unfrequently omitted:

mae hi yn gwlawio, *it rains*; *fe † wlawiodd ddôe*, *it rained yesterday*.

NOTE.—The origin of this form of expression is unknown. Possibly it may have been due to a practice among the Celts of attributing such phenomena as rain, thunder, etc., to a goddess.

THE PREDICATE.

Agreement of the Verb with the Subject in Simple Sentences.

WHEN THE SUBJECT IS SIMPLE.

317 Here it is necessary to consider whether the sentence be of normal or inverted order.

318 1. In sentences of normal order (see § 303).

aeth y wraig i'r ty, *the woman has gone into the house*.

aeth y gwagedd i'r ty, *the women have gone into the house*.

gweithiodd y dynion yn rhagorol, *the men worked excellently*.

aethom ni gartref, *we went home*.

maent hwy yno, *they are there*.

a gawsant hwy ddigon? *did they get enough?*

RULE.—In sentences of normal order, when the Subject is a noun, the Verb is always in the singular, whether the noun be singular or plural. When the Subject is a pronoun, the Verb agrees with the pronoun in number and person.

† For 'fe' see Accidence, § 133 and Appendix.

- 319 2. In sentences of inverted order (see § 305).
 y pendefigion o'r Aipht draw | a ddaw ac Ethiopia (E. Prys), *the noblemen will come from distant Egypt and Ethiopia.*
 y merched (a) gaiff * fyned gyntaf, *the women shall go first.*
 ai chwi (a) roddodd yr arian? *was it you that gave the money?*
 hwy (or hwyntwy) ni fuont yno, *they were not there.*

RULE.—In affirmative sentences of inverted order, the Verb stands in the 3rd pers. sing. In negative sentences the Verb agrees with the Subject in number and person ; see Appendix.


OBS.—Even in affirmative sentences, when the Subject, though placed before the Verb, is not emphatic, the Verb often agrees with it in number and person :

e.g. mi a glywais y chwedl, *I heard the story.*

pawb a'i bendithiant ef yn wr, *all will verily bless him.*
 (E. Prys.)

N.B.—A collective noun from which a singular is formed (§§ 76, 77) is treated in Syntax as a plural.

WHEN THE SUBJECT IS COMPOUND.

- 320  A Compound Subject is a Subject made up of two or more nouns (or noun-equivalents) linked together by the conjunction *ac*, *and*, or united in thought without a conjunction.

Here again it is necessary to consider whether the sentence be of normal or inverted order.

- 321 1. In sentences of normal order (see § 303).
 dāeth John a William, *John and William came.*
 dāeth John a minnau, *John and I came.*
 daethost ti a minnau, *you and I came.*
 daethost ti a John, *you and John came.*

RULE.—In sentences of normal order, if the Compound Subject be a noun + noun or a noun + pronoun, the Verb is in the 3rd pers. sing.; if the Compound Subject be a pronoun + pronoun or a pronoun + noun, the Verb agrees in person and number with the pronoun nearest to it. The same rule applies to words joined together by *neu*, *or*.

* Cf. the Breton *mé a gar*, *I love*.

322 2. In sentences of inverted order (see § 305).

John a minnau sydd yma, *it is John and I that are here.*

ëf a'r bachgen (a) aeth yno, *it was he and the boy that went there.*

RULE.—In affirmative sentences of inverted order, the Verb, even when the Subject is Compound, stands in the 3rd pers. sing.

OBS.—In negative sentences and sometimes even in affirmative sentences the Verb is made to agree with the Subject: *e.g.* ef a minnau ni aethom, *he and I did not go*; hi a thithau a aethoch, *she and you went.*

In that case, if the words composing the Subject are of different persons, then the plural Verb is of the 1st person rather than the 2nd or 3rd, and of the 2nd person rather than the 3rd.

REASON.—ëf a minnau = ni (1st pers. plur.).

hi a thithau = chwī (2nd pers. plur.).

Agreement of the Verbs with the Subject in Co-ordinate Sentences.

323 aeth y brenin i'r llys ac eisteddodd ar ei orsedd, *the king went into the court and sat on his throne.*

eisteddodd y gweithwyr a gorphwysasant, *the workmen sat and rested.*

aethom i'r ty ac eisteddasom, *we went into the house and sat down.*

RULE.—In a series of co-ordinate sentences *with the same Subject*, the Verbs, in all the sentences after the first, agree in number and person with that Subject.

N.B.—Sometimes, in such a series of sentences, only the first sentence has a finite verb, while the others have each a verb-noun: *e.g.* aethant i'r ty ac eistedd a bwyta, *they went into the house, sat down and ate.*

SECOND FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

(PREDICATE = VERB + PREDICATE-ADJECTIVE OR PREDICATE-NOUN, § 304, II.)

324 The same kind of verb may stand in a Predicate of the Second Form as in English:—

1. wyf, *I am*: *e.g.* yr wyf yn ddedydd, *I am happy*; mae yn frenin, *he is a king.*

deuaf, *I become*: *e.g.* daw y bachgen yn ddyn, *the child will become a man.*

arhosaf, *I remain* : e.g. ni erys yn ieuanc, *he will not remain young*.

ymddanghosaf, *I appear* : e.g. ymddanghosaf yn drist, *I appear sad*.

2. The Passives (cf. *Accidence*, § 178 ; § 327, note)—

crëir fi, *I am created* ; penodir fi, *I am appointed* ; etholir fi, *I am elected* ; gelwir fi, *I am called* ; cyfrifir fi, *I am accounted* ; ystyrir fi, *I am considered* :

e.g. penodir y tywysog yn frenin, *the prince is appointed king* ; cyfrifir fi yn dlawd, *I am accounted poor*.

RULE.—The Predicate-noun or the Predicate-adjective is preceded by the predicative proclitic yn (for which see § 304, note). When, however, the Verb is a form of *wyf*, *I am*, and the Predicate-noun or Predicate-adjective precedes the Verb, yn is not used : e.g. dyn wyf, *I am a man*.

3. With other verbs the Predicate-adjective or the Predicate-noun referring to the Subject denotes :—

either (a) the result of an action :

e.g. fe gyfyd yr afon yn uwch, *the river will rise higher*.

or (b) what the Subject is, was or will be at the time of the action :

e.g. dychwelodd yn fyw ac iâch, *he returned alive and well*.

4. This use of the Predicate-adjective has been greatly extended in Welsh so as to supply the place of adverbs :

e.g. gweithiodd yn egniol, *he worked vigorously*.

Cf. the Latin *inivitus* (*imprudens*) *fecit*, *he did it unwillingly* (*unwittingly*).

Agreement of the Predicate-adjective.

325

mae yr afon yn ddofn, *the river is deep*.

ymddengys y tai yn wynion, *the houses appear white*.

mae y dillad yn ddū iawn, *the clothes are very black*.

RULE.—As in Latin and Greek, the Predicate-adjective, if capable of undergoing change of form to express gender or number, generally agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, but sometimes the Predicate-adjective, though capable of taking a plural form, is left in the singular, even when the noun of which it is predicated is in the plural.

OBS. 1.—When the Subject is plural and the Predicate-adjective singular, the masculine form of the singular is always used :

e.g. mae y dolydd yn wyrdd, the meadows are green.

(not—yn werdd, though döl is feminine.)

OBS. 2.—When the Predicate-adjective is equivalent in meaning to an English adverb ending in *-ly*, it always has the form of the singular masculine.

THIRD FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

(PREDICATE=VERB + OBJECT, § 304, III.)

The Object.

- 326 1. In Welsh, as in other languages,
 (a) the Object is either a noun or a noun-equivalent;
 (b) if the Object be a declinable word, it stands in the accusative case: *e.g. fe'm gwelodd, he saw me.*

N.B.—The only words of accusative form in Modern Welsh are the postvocalic personal pronouns. See Accidence, §§ 130, 132.

2. The Object of a verb is often of kindred meaning to the verb. In this case it is called Cognate. As in Latin and Greek, a Cognate Object is usually qualified by an adjective:

e.g. canodd gân ragorol, he sang an excellent song.

Passive Construction.

ACTIVE.

- 327 lladdodd y teithiwr lew,
the traveller killed a lion.
 dychrynodd y tarw y bechgyn,
the bull frightened the boys.

PASSIVE.

lladdwyd llew gan y teithiwr,
a lion was killed by the traveller.
 dychrynwyd y bechgyn gan y
 tarw,
*the boys were frightened by the
 bull.*

RULE.—In the Passive construction of verbs taking an Object, what was the Object in the Active becomes the Subject; what was the Subject in the Active is connected with the Passive verb by the preposition *gan*, *by* (lit. *with*).

NOTE.—Owing to the peculiar history of the Welsh Passive (see Accidence, § 178), it is often difficult to determine, when the sentence is of normal order, whether the apparent Subject is a Subject of a passive verb or the Object of an impersonal verb; when the sentence is of inverted order and the Subject precedes the verb, the passive character of the verb is much clearer:

e.g. gwelwyd dyn (Normal order)
'a man was seen' (unemphatic)

dyn a welwyd (Inverted order)
'a man was seen' (emphatic).

Verbs constructed with a fixed preposition.

328 Where a language like Greek, Latin, or German, in other words an inflexional language, uses *fixed cases* in dependence upon certain verbs, in Welsh, as in English, a *fixed preposition* often becomes necessary.

329 The chief verbs taking such fixed prepositions are the following:—

(a) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *ag* (â), *with*.

cydymdeimlaf [ag]	<i>I sympathize</i> [with]	ymheliaf [ag]	<i>I meddle</i> [with]
		ymladdaf [ag]	<i>I fight</i> [with]
cynefinaf [ag]	<i>I grow accustomed</i> [to]	ymrysonaf [ag]	<i>I quarrel</i> [with]
cytunaf [ag]	<i>I agree</i> [with]	ymyraf [ag]	<i>I interfere</i> [with]
ymddiddanaf [ag]	<i>I converse</i> [with]		

(b) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *ar*, *on*.

achwynaf [ar]	<i>I complain</i> [of]	edrychaf [ar]	<i>I look</i> [at]
beiaf [ar]	<i>I blame</i>	galwaf [ar]	<i>I call</i> [upon]
blinaf [ar]	<i>I am tired</i> [of]	gwaeddaf [ar]	<i>I cry</i> [to]
boddlonaf [ar]	<i>I am content</i> [with]	gweddïaf [ar]	<i>I pray</i> [to]
cefnaf [ar]	<i>I forsake</i>	gwenaf [ar]	<i>I smile</i> [on]
cwynaf [ar]	<i>I complain</i> [of]	gwyliaf [ar]	<i>I watch</i>
daliaf [ar]	<i>I pay heed</i> [to]	llefaf [ar]	<i>I cry</i> [to]
dialaf [ar]	<i>I take vengeance</i> [upon]	rhagoraf [ar]	<i>I excel</i>
		sylwaf [ar]	<i>I notice</i>
dylanwadaf [ar]	<i>I influence</i>	ymosodaf [ar]	<i>I attack</i>

(c) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *at*, *towards*.

agoshâf [at]	<i>I approach</i>	neshâf [at]	<i>I approach</i>
cadwaf [at]	<i>I keep</i> [to]	rhyfeddâf [at]	<i>I wonder</i> [at]
cyfeiriaf [at]	<i>I refer</i> [to]	synnaf [at]	" "

(d) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *wrth*, *to*, *close to*.

cenfigenaf [wrth]	<i>I envy</i>	glynaf [wrth]	<i>I cling</i> [to]
digiaf [wrth]	<i>I am angry</i> [with]	llefaraaf [wrth]	<i>I speak</i> [to]
		tarawaf [wrth]	<i>I meet</i> [with]
dywedaf [wrth]	<i>I tell</i>	tosturiaf [wrth]	<i>I pity</i>

Add also: atebaf [i], *I answer*; ymroddaf [i], *I devote myself* [to]; cyfranogaf [o], *I partake* [of]; and ymogelaf [rhag], *I beware* [of].

Verbs taking a verb-noun as Object.

330 Some verbs take a verb-noun as their Object :

e.g. gallaf weithio, *I can work.*

dechreuaf ysgrifenu, *I shall begin to write* (lit. *I shall begin writing*).

addawodd ddyfod, *he promised to come* (lit. *he promised coming*).

dysgwn ddarllen, *let us learn to read* (lit. *let us learn reading*).

The following verbs may take a verb-noun as Object in a Predicate of the Third Form :—

addawaf	<i>I promise</i>	dysgat	<i>I learn</i>
anghofiaf	<i>I forget</i>	dymunaf	<i>I desire</i>
anobeithiaf	<i>I despair</i>	ewyllysiaf	<i>I wish</i>
anturiaf	<i>I venture</i>	gallaf	<i>I can</i>
arferaf	<i>I am accustomed</i>	gobeithiaf	<i>I hope</i>
arswydaf	<i>I dread</i>	gochelaif	<i>I avoid</i>
beiddiaf	<i>I dare</i>	gorphenaf	<i>I finish</i>
brysiaf	<i>I hasten</i>	gwrthodaf	<i>I refuse</i>
bwriadaf	<i>I intend</i>	haeddaf	<i>I deserve</i>
bygythiaf	<i>I threaten</i>	hoffaf	<i>I like</i>
câf	<i>I obtain</i>	medraf	<i>I am able</i>
caraf	<i>I love</i>	methaf	<i>I am unable</i>
cashâf	<i>I hate</i>	inynnaf	<i>I am determined</i>
ceisiaf	<i>I seek</i>	nacâf	<i>I refuse</i>
cofiaf	<i>I remember</i>	oedaf	<i>I delay</i>
cychwynaf	<i>I start</i>	ofnaf	<i>I fear</i>
cynygiaf	<i>I attempt</i>	osgoaf	<i>I avoid</i>
chwenychaf	<i>I desire</i>	osiaf	<i>I attempt</i>
dechreuaf	<i>I begin</i>	pallaf	<i>I fail</i>
dewisaf	<i>I choose</i>	rhyfygaf	<i>I risk</i>
digwyddaf	<i>I happen</i>	trfnaf	<i>I arrange</i>
disgwyliaf	<i>I expect</i>	ymdrechaf	<i>I endeavour</i>
dylwn	<i>I ought</i>		

Caution.—The verb-noun after these verbs must not be preceded by the preposition *i*. After troaf [i], *I turn* [to]; llwyddaf [i], *I succeed* [in]; and cytunaf [i], *I agree* to, the verb-noun is correctly preceded by that preposition. [Cf. § 333, Cautions 1 and 2.]

FOURTH FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

(PREDICATE=VERB+TWO OBJECTS, § 304, IV.)

- 331 | Welsh has no verbs which take two accusatives (like Latin *doceō tē linguam Latinam*, *I teach thee the Latin language*); and, owing to the absence of dative inflexions, no verbs which take a dative and an accusative. It has, however, a considerable number of verbs which take an Object and a fixed preposition governing a noun or pronoun (or combined with a pronominal suffix) in place of a second Object:

e.g. *rhoddaf arian i'r llanc*, *I shall give the youth money.*
amddifadodd ef o'i eiddo, *he deprived him of his property.*
talasant ei gyflog iddo, *they paid him his salary.*

332

(a) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *i*, *to*.

addawaf [i]	<i>I promise</i>	gofynaf [i]	<i>I ask</i>
atebaf [i]	<i>I answer</i>	gosodaf [i]	<i>I assign [to]</i>
cynygiat [i]	<i>I offer</i>	maddeuaf [i]	<i>I forgive</i>
danghosaf [i]	<i>I show</i>	mynegaf [i]	<i>I indicate [to]</i>
dysgaf [i]	<i>I teach</i>	rhoddaf [i]	<i>I give [to]</i>
edliwaf [i]	<i>I taunt</i>	talaf [i]	<i>I pay [to]</i>
gadawaf [i]	<i>I leave</i>		

(b) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *o*, *from*.

amddifadaf [o]	<i>I deprive [of]</i>	cyhuddaf [o]	<i>I accuse [of]</i>
argyhoeddaf [o]	<i>I convince [of]</i>	llanwaf [o]	<i>I fill [with]</i>

(c) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *wrth*, *to*.

addefaf [wrth]	<i>I admit [to]</i>	cyffesaf [wrth]	<i>I confess [to]</i>
cyfaddefaf [wrth]	<i>I confess [to]</i>		

(d) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *ag* (a), *with*.

cymysgaf [ag]	<i>I mix [with]</i>	cysylltaf [ag]	<i>I join [to]</i>
cynysgaeddaf [ag]	<i>I endow [with]</i>		

(e) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *at*, *to*, *toward*.

cymhwysaf [at]	<i>I apply [to]</i>	gosodaf [at]	<i>I add [to]</i>
chwanegaf [at]	<i>I add [to]</i>	ysgrifenasaf [at]	<i>I write [to]</i>

(f) Verbs taking the fixed preposition *rhag*, *from*.

achubaf [rhag]	<i>I save [from]</i>	diogelaf [rhag]	<i>I protect [from]</i>
cadwaf [rhag]	<i>I keep [from]</i>	gwyliaf [rhag]	" "

333 Verbs taking a verb-noun as one of two Objects.

Some verbs take a verb-noun as one of two Objects :

- e.g.* dysgodd i mi ganu, *he taught me singing.*
 gofynais iddo fyned, *I asked him to go.*
 gadewch i'r bwyd oeri, *allow the food to cool.*

The following verbs may take a verb-noun as one of their Objects in a Predicate of the Fourth Form :—

addawaf -	<i>I promise</i>	ewyllysiaf	<i>I wish</i>
arbedaf	<i>I save</i>	goddefaf	<i>I allow</i>
archaf	<i>I request</i>	gofynaf	<i>I ask</i>
awgrymaf	<i>I suggest</i>	gorchymynaf	<i>I command</i>
bwriadaf -	<i>I intend</i>	gwaharddafa	<i>I forbid</i>
câf *	<i>I obtain</i>	gwarafunaf	" "
ceisiaf *	<i>I seek</i>	gwnâf	<i>I make</i>
caniatâf	<i>I allow</i>	gwrthodaf	<i>I refuse</i>
cynghoraf	<i>I advise</i>	nacâf	" "
cynygiaf	<i>I offer</i>	paraf	<i>I cause</i>
deisyfaf *	<i>I beseech</i>	rhwystraf	<i>I prevent</i>
dymunaf *	<i>I desire</i>	trefnaf	<i>I arrange</i>
erfyniaf *	<i>I beg</i>		

Cautions.—1. The verb-noun after these verbs must not be preceded by the preposition *i* (cf. § 330, Caution) :

e.g. gofynaf iddo ddyfod, *I shall ask him to come* (not, gofynaf iddo i ddyfod).

The unnecessary use of the prep. *i* before the verb-noun in Predicates of the Fourth Form (in imitation of the English 'to' before the infinitive) is one of the commonest mistakes of inexperienced writers, and should be carefully avoided.

2. After the following verbs, however, which govern a noun or pronoun as one of their two Objects, the verb-noun is correctly preceded by *i* :—

cynghoraf	<i>I advise</i>	galluogaf	<i>I enable</i>
dysgaf	<i>I teach</i>	heriaf	<i>I challenge</i>
galwaf	<i>I call</i>		

* *câf* and *ceisiaf* take the preposition *gan*, *with* ; *deisyfaf*, *dymunaf*, *erfyniaf*, the preposition *ar*, *on*, before the word denoting the person : *e.g.* *ceisiaf gan y dyn fyned*, *I try to get the man to go* ; *deisyfaf arno ddyfod*, *I beg of him to come*.

FIFTH FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

(PREDICATE = VERB + OBJECT + PREDICATE-ADJECTIVE OR
PREDICATE-NOUN, § 304, V.)

- 334 | As in other languages, the chief verbs that take a Predicate-adjective or Predicate-noun referring to the Object are verbs denoting *to make, choose, call, think, show, leave*—the verbs whose passives take a Predicate-adjective or Predicate-noun referring to the Subject :

e.g. coronwch ef yn ben, crown Him Lord.

galwant ef yn wynyddedig, they call him blessed.

profodd ei hūn yn ffyddlon, he proved himself faithful.

- 335 | With other verbs, the Predicate-adjective or Predicate-noun referring to the Object denotes (as in § 324, 3)—
either (a) the result of an action :—


e.g. codasant y mūr yn uwch, they raised the wall higher.

or (b) what the Object is, was or will be at the time of the action :

e.g. os dywedi y gwir, cei y gŵr yn gyfaill, if you speak the truth, you will find the man a friend.

fel, megis, as, may be added :

e.g. mae yn'ei drin fel caethwas, he treats him as a slave.

 For the use of *yn*, see § 324, Rule.

For the agreement of the Predicate-adjective, see § 325, Rule.

ATTRIBUTES.

Agreement of the Adjective as Attribute.

- | | | |
|-----|--|---|
| 336 | 1. <i>tair carreg drom, three heavy</i>
<div style="text-align: center;"><i>stones</i></div>
<i>ffordd fer, a short road</i>
<i>caseg wen, a white mare</i> | 2. <i>mentyll llydain, broad mantles</i>
<div style="text-align: center;"><i>merched ieuainc, young</i></div>
<div style="text-align: center;"><i>women</i></div> |
|-----|--|---|

RULES : 1. An adjective which has a feminine form in regular use must agree in gender with the fem. noun which it qualifies.

2. An adjective which has a plural form does not always agree in number with the plural noun which it qualifies. If the adjective qualifying a plural noun stands in the singular, the masc. form of the singular must be used, even with plural nouns of the feminine gender.

Obs.—The adjectives—

arall, <i>other</i>	cyfan, <i>whole</i>	llydan, <i>broad</i>
bychan, <i>small</i>	gwan, <i>weak</i>	marw, <i>dead</i>
cadarn, <i>strong</i>	ieuan, <i>young</i>	tlawd, <i>poor</i>

as well as most adjectives which denote colours, almost always take the plural form with plural nouns.

N.B.—A cardinal numeral adj. is always followed by a singular noun.

Place of the Adjective as Attribute.

- 337 The adjective generally comes after the noun which it qualifies, but the following adjectives are exceptions:—

- (a) All the indefinite pronominal adjectives.
- (b) All numerals—except *cynaf*, *first*.
- (c) *prif*, *chief* (fr. Latin *primus*).
- (d) *cam*, when it means *false*.
- (e) *unig*, when it means *only*.
- (f) Usually, *gau*, *false*; *gwir*, *true*; and *hēn*, *old*. When, however, these adjectives are qualified by one of the adverbs *gō*, *rather*, *iawn*, *very*, *trā*, *exceedingly*, they follow the noun.

The Noun as Attribute.

- 338 In Welsh, as in English, the noun is often used as an Attribute, especially to denote material:

e.g. wal gerrig, *a stone wall*; sarff brēs, *a brazen serpent*.

NOTE.—In Modern Welsh such nouns are treated partly as nouns, partly as adjectives:—like nouns they may stand in the plural, like adjectives they undergo initial mutation after feminine nouns. For example, 'gerrig' in 'wal gerrig' is the mutated form of the plural of *carreg*, *stone*, *c* changing to *g* according to the regular rule for initial mutation in adjectives following feminine nouns. Historically, it is not improbable that such nouns were once in the genitive case. Though a noun depending on a noun does not undergo initial mutation in Modern Welsh, in Mediæval Welsh such mutation was common in the case of a noun depending on a feminine noun.

KINDS OF SENTENCE.

Sentences may be classified as:—

- 339
- I. Statements;
 - II. Will-speech, i.e. Commands, Wishes, Concessions;
 - III. Questions;
 - IV. Exclamations,

I. STATEMENTS.

- 340 A. Statements of fact (Mood, Indicative: Negative *nid*, *ni*, *nis*, = Greek *οὐ*, Latin *nōn*):
e.g. *dywedodd y gwir, he spoke the truth.*

B. Conditional statements.

These statements may be regarded in Welsh as Conditional sentences with the *if*-clause omitted:

- e.g.* (1) *carwn ddweyd, I should like to say*: understanding *pē cawn, if I were permitted.*
 (2) *hoffaswn fynd, I should have liked to go*: understanding *pē cawswn, if I had been permitted.*

RULE.—Conditional statements (including hesitating or cautious assertions) are expressed by the Indicative; Neg. *nid* (*ni*):

- by the Past Imperfect Indic. used as a Secondary Future, if referring to present time, as in (1);
 by the Pluperfect Indic. used as a Secondary Fut. Perfect, if referring to past time, as in (2).

NOTE 1.—There is a strong tendency at the present day, especially in North Wales, to use the Pluperfect form in both cases.

NOTE 2.—The 2nd pers. sing. is often indefinite (*ti, you* = "one," Gk. *τις*, Fr. *on*, Germ. *man*).

Statements in co-ordinate sentences.

For the use of a verb-noun in place of a verb in a series of Co-ordinate-Sentences see § 323, N.B.

II. WILL-SPEECH: i.e. COMMANDS, WISHES, CONCESSIONS.

According as the will-speech is more or less peremptory, it becomes a command or a mere expression of wish.

Commands.

- 341a 1. Commands are expressed by means of the Imperative, the plural of which is the same as the Pres. Indic. P. 2:
e.g. *dywed, speak (thou)*; *dywedwch, speak (ye).*
 2. A pressing request may be expressed by means of the Imperative of *gwnâf*, followed by a verb-noun as its Object:
e.g. *gwnewch aros, do stay.*
 N.B.—A polite request which would be expressed in English by the Imper. Act. S. 2 is generally expressed in Welsh by the Imper. Impers. S. 3; *e.g.* *please read* = *darllener.*

Prohibitions (Negative Commands).

341b

1. Prohibitions are expressed by *nac* (nā) with the Imperative :
e.g. *nac ofna*, *do not fear* ; *nā lādd*, *do not kill*.
2. They are also very commonly expressed by using the Imperative of *peidiaf*, *I cease*, followed by a verb-noun, with or without the preposition *ag* (a), *with* :
e.g. *peidiwch a myned*, *do not go*, lit. *cease to go*: cf. Lat. *nōlīte ire*.

Wishes.

342

1. Wishes as to the future may be expressed by using the Pres. Subjunctive :

e.g. *gwelwyf y dydd* ! *may I see the day* !

Duw a'n bendithio ! *may God bless us* !

Cf. Lat. *vivat*, Gk. *ζῶν*, *may he live* ! Fr. *vive le roi* ! *long live the king* !

2. Wishes that something were (at the present* time) other than it actually is, are expressed by the Past Imperfect Indicative, used as a Past Imperfect Subjunctive, with *ō nad* (nā) ! lit. *oh that not* ! but corresponding in usage to the English *oh that* ! Cf. Lat. *utinam viveret*, Gk. *εἴθε ἔζη* :

e.g. *ō nā bai yn fyw yn awr* ! *would that he were alive now* !

ō nā byddai 'n haf o hyd ! *would that it were always summer* !

3. Wishes that something had been (in the past) otherwise than it actually was, are expressed by the Pluperfect Indicative, used as a Pluperfect Subjunctive, with *ō nad* (nā) ; cf. Lat. *utinam illis temporibus vixisset*, Gk. *εἴθε τότε ἔβίω* :

e.g. *ō nā buasai yn fyw y pryd hynny* ! *would that he had been alive then* !

ō nā chawsai ei ddymuniad ! *would that he had been granted his desire* !

OBS. 1.—The Pluperfect is frequently used at the present day, especially in the Welsh of North Wales, to express wishes as to the past, present, or future :

e.g. *o na chawsw'n i fyn'd yfory* ! *oh that I may go to-morrow* !

o na buasai yn fyw yn awr ! *would that he were alive now* !

o na buasai yma ddôe ! *would that he had been here yesterday* !

OBS. 2.—Wishes as to the future are sometimes expressed by using *o am*, *oh for*, followed by a verb-noun :

e.g. *o am gyfeirio fy ffyrdd i gadw dy ddeddfau*, *oh that my ways might be directed to keep* (i.e. *to keeping*) *thy statutes*. Ps. cxix. 5.

* This form may also be used with reference to future time.

4. As the negative adverb nad (nā), *not* (Greek μή, Lat. nē), is used in affirmative expressions of wish, negative wishes as to the present and the future are usually expressed by means of the Pluperfect of *wyf* followed by the verb-noun *peidio*, *ceasing*, with the preposition *yn*; the verb-noun *peidio* being followed by the verb-noun denoting the action required, with or without *ag* (a):

e.g. ō nā buasai yn peidio (a) myned! *oh that he would not go!* lit. *oh that he would be a-ceasing from going!*

Similarly, by the substitution of the preposition *wedi*, *after*, for *yn*, *in*, a negative wish as to the past may be expressed:

e.g. ō nā buasai wedi peidio (a) myned! *oh that he had not gone!* lit. *oh that he would be after ceasing from going!*

5. A negative wish as to the past may also be expressed by using ō nad (nā) with the Pluperfect of *wyf* followed by the required verb-noun with the preposition *heb*, *without*:

e.g. ō nā buasai heb fyned! *oh that he had not gone!* lit. *oh that he were without going!*

Concessions.

- 343 Concessions are expressed by the Imperative. The negative is *nac* (nā) = Gk. μή, Lat. nē:
e.g. bōed felly, *be it so.* (Cf. Lat. estō, Gk. ἔστω, Fr. soit.)

III. QUESTIONS.

- 344a Questions may take the form of a sentence of normal or inverted order: see Accidence, §§ 283, 285, 286, 287. For the mode of expressing 'Yes' and 'No' see Accidence, §§ 286, 287.

e.g. a welodd y gwās y ceffylau ddōe? *did the servant see the horses yesterday?*

ai y ceffylau (a) welodd y gwās ddoe? *was it the horses that the servant saw yesterday?*

a ddaw y māb adref yfory? *will the son come home to-morrow?*

ai y māb (a) ddaw adref yfory? *is it the son that will come home to-morrow?*

ai adref y daw y māb yfory? *is it home that the son will come to-morrow?*

ai yfory y daw y māb adref? *is it to-morrow that the son will come home?*

Deliberative Questions.

- 344b | a ydwyf i fyned? *am I to go?*
 beth wyf i'w wneyd? *what am I to do?*
 a oeddwn i dewi? *was I to be silent?*
 beth oeddwn i'w ddweyd? *what was I to say?*

RULE: Deliberative questions (*i.e.* questions as to what is or was to be done) are expressed by using the verb *wyf* (*ydwyf*), *I am* followed by a verb-noun with the prep. *i*, *to*, as in English:

when the question refers to present or future time, the Pres. Ind. is used:

when the question refers to past time, the Past Imperf. Ind. (Continuous) is used.

Obs.—A deliberative question referring to the future may also be expressed by using the Future (= Present) Indicative:

e.g. a ddywedwn ni wrthynt? *shall we tell them?*

Double Deliberative Questions.

- 344c | a wyf i fyned ynte aros? *am I to go or stay?*
 a lefarwn ynte tewi? *shall we speak or be silent?*
 a oedd i fyned ynte peidio? *was he to go or not?*

RULE.—Where a deliberative question contains two alternatives, the second is expressed by means of a verb-noun preceded by the conjunction *ynte*, *or*: *or not* is expressed by '*ynte peidio*.'

NOTE.—The answer corresponding to the finite verb in the case of a double deliberative question is in the Imperative, the answer corresponding to the verb-noun is a verb-noun:

e.g. a lefarwn ynte tewi? *Ans.* llefarwch (verb), or tewi (verb-noun).

Modes of introducing questions.

- 344d | 1. For the modes of introducing questions which may be answered by 'Yes' or 'No,' see Accidence, §§ 283, 285.
 2. Questions which cannot be answered by 'Yes' or 'No' are introduced, as in other languages, by interrogative pronouns, interrogative adjectives or interrogative adverbs, without any interrogative particle. Such questions always take the form of a sentence of inverted order.

IV. EXCLAMATIONS.

- 345 | Many of the above-named modes of speech may become exclamatory (*i.e.* may be used to express emotion):—

decyd ydyw! *how beautiful it is!*

mor wyn ydyw! *how white it is!*

gymmaint y'th gashâf! *how (=how much) I hate you!*

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

346a In a Complex Sentence the Principal Clause and the Subordinate Clause have each a Subject and Predicate of its own but in Welsh the place of the Subordinate Clause is often taken by a **Phrase** (§ 308) formed with a verb-noun, which is equivalent in meaning to a Subordinate Clause. Such sentences, though expressing the meaning of Complex Sentences, are *in form* simple: *e.g.*—

(a) *dywedodd fod dyn yno, he said that there was a man there, lit. he said the being of a man there. (Noun Phrase.)*

Contrast:—*dywedodd nad oedd dyn yno, he said that there was not a man there. (Noun Clause.)*

(b) *gan iddo orphen, since he finished, lit. owing to him finishing. (Adverb Phrase.)*

Contrast:—*gan nā orphenodd, since he did not finish. (Adverb Clause.)*

In (a) *fod* is grammatically the Object of *dywedodd*, and in (b) *orphen* depends on the preposition *gan*.

For the limitations to the use of a Clause in special cases see §§ 347b, 349b, 358b, 367, 368a, 368b.

Verb-noun phrases (Clause-equivalents).

346b The following rules as to the construction of these verb-noun phrases apply to all the cases in which they are used (whether as equivalent to Adverb Clauses or to Noun Clauses):

RULES.—I. In the case of all verb-noun Phrases, a verb-noun takes the place of the verb in a Clause:

e.g. gwelais ei ddwyfod, I saw that he came, lit. I saw his coming.

Contrast:—*gwelais nā ddaeth, I saw that he did not come.*

cyn ei fyned, before he went, lit. before his going.

Contrast:—*cyn yr aeth, before he went.*

2. The Subject of the corresponding Clause is, in Active constructions, generally represented by placing the required noun or pronoun (or pronominal suffix)—

either (a) with the preposition *i*, *to*, *before* the verb-noun,

or (b) " " " " o, * *from*, *after* "

e.g. gwn iddo orphen, *I know that he finished*, lit. *I know to him a finishing*.

gwn orphen ohono, *I know that he finished*, lit. *I know a finishing from him*.

cyn i'r dyn orphen, *before the man finished*, lit. *before to the man a finishing*.

cyn gorphen o'r dyn, *before the man finished*, lit. *before a finishing from the man*.

But, where the verb-noun is *böd*, *being*,† the Subject of the corresponding Clause may be represented, if a noun, by placing the noun immediately after the verb-noun, or, if a pronoun, by employing the corresponding possessive adj. with the verb-noun; these rules, however, apply only when *böd* represents a finite verb in the Pres. Indic. Continuous or the Past Imperf. Indic. Continuous:

e.g. gwn fod y dyn yn hën, *I know that the man is old*, lit. *I know the being of the man old*.

gwyddwn ei fod yn hën, *I knew that he was old*, lit. *I knew his being old*.

Similarly—er föd y dyn yn hën, *though the man is old*, lit. *in spite of the man's being old*; er ei fod yn hën, *though he is old*, lit. *in spite of his being old*.

3. The Object of the corresponding Clause in Active constructions and the Subject in Passive constructions are alike represented, if a noun, by placing the noun immediately after the verb-noun, or, if a pronoun, by employing the corresponding possessive adjective with the verb-noun:

e.g. wedi iddo weled y dyn, *after he saw the man*.

wedi iddo fy ngweled, *after he saw me*.

clywais golli y dyn, *I heard that the man was lost*.

clywais ei golli, *I heard that he was lost*.

* The use of the prep. *o* for this purpose is now almost obsolete in Welsh prose.

† A few other intransitive verb-nouns such as *dyfod*, *coming*, *myned*, *coming*, *machlud*, *setting*, *hwyrau*, *growing late*, and *marw*, *dying*, have a similar construction.

Passive verbs (impersonal forms) are most commonly represented in verb-noun phrases by the verb-noun *cael* followed by another verb-noun depending upon it. See *Accidence*, § 280 :

e.g. *dywedodd iddo gael ei flino gan anwyd, he said that he was troubled (once) with a cold, lit. that he got his troubling, etc.*

NOTE.—The use of the genitive case after the verb-noun in Irish, the non-mutation of a noun following a transitive verb-noun, and the use of possessive adjectives with the verb-noun, all point to the fact that in Welsh the verb-noun was followed by a noun in the genitive case. The genitive following a transitive verb-noun and expressing what would be the Object of a transitive verb would correspond to the objective genitive of Greek and Latin, while the genitive following an intransitive verb would correspond to the subjective genitive. These constructions arose at a time when the affinities of the verb-noun to the noun were clearly felt. At the present day, however, we are, on the whole, more conscious of the affinities of the verb-noun to the verb, and, if it were possible for Welsh to develop new case-endings, the case which was once an objective genitive would doubtless become an accusative, and this might possibly also happen to the subjective genitive.

N.B.—In Noun Phrases of Statement and the Equivalents of Causal and Concessive Clauses, when the doer of the action expressed by the verb-noun is denoted by the aid of the preposition *i* or *o*, the verb-noun generally corresponds to a finite verb in the Aorist or the Pluperfect in a Clause :

e.g. *gan iddo ddyfod, since he came.*

gan nā ddaeth, since he did not come.

Contrast :—*gwn ei fod, I know that he is, and*
gwn iddo fod, I know that he was.

ADVERB CLAUSES AND PHRASES (§ 313).

346* Adverb Clauses are classified according to the adverbial meaning which they express. Thus we have Adverb Clauses of—

- (a) Time, introduced by—
 pan, *when* } [= Lat. cum]
 pryd, „ }
 er pan, *since* [= Lat. ex quō]
 pryd bynnag, *whenever*
 gynted ag, *as soon as* [= Lat. ut
 primum]
 gydag (gyda), *just as*
 trā, *while* [= Lat. dum]
 nes
 hyd nes }
 oni¹ } *until* [= Lat. donec]
 hyd oni }
 tan (dan) }
 cyhyd ag, *as long as* [= Lat.
 quoad]
 cyn, *before* [= Lat. antequam,
 priusquam]
 gwedi, wedi, *after* [= Lat. post-
 quam]
 (b) Place, introduced by—
 llē, *where* [= Lat. ubi]
 llē bynnag, *wherever*
 (c) Reason, introduced by—
 gan, *since, as* [= Lat. quoniam,
 cum]
 am, *because, as* [= Lat. quod,
 quia]
 pan, *since, as* [= Lat. quandō-
 quidem, siquidem]

- (d) Purpose, introduced by—
 fel } *in order that* [= Lat. ut]
 mödd }
 rhag }
 nad (nā) } *lest* [= Lat. nē]
 (e) Result, introduced by—
 fel } *so that* [= Lat. ut]
 nes }
 (f) Condition, introduced by
 os } *if* [= Lat. si]
 pē }
 oni, *if not* [= Lat. nisi]
 am, *if only* [= Lat. dum, dum-
 modo]
 (g) Concession, introduced by—
 er } *although* [= Lat. quam-
 serch } quam, quamvis, licet,
 cyd¹ } ut, cum]
 pē,² *even if* [= Lat. etsi,
 tametsi]
 (h) Comparison, introduced by
 fel, *as* [= Lat. sicut, ut, quemad-
 modum]
 pō, *by how much, in proportion as*
 [= Lat. quō]
 nag (nā), *than* [= Lat. quam]
 Comparison + Condition, intro-
 duced by—
 fel pē, *as if* [= Lat. quasi, velut-
 si, tamquam, tamquam si]

N.B.—Whenever one of these conjunctions (except nad, os, pō, oni and sometimes pē) introduces an affirmative clause of normal order, the verb must be preceded by the proclitic particle yr (y):

¹ Rare.² Often preceded by *ie, yes, yea.*

if the clause be of inverted order, the conjunction *mai* (S. Wales *taw*) is put after the conjunction which introduces the Clause (except after *nad*, *pō*, *oni* and *pē*). In Negative Clauses *nad* (*na*) is substituted for *yr* (*y*) or *mai*, but *mai nid* is also occasionally used. (After *pan*, *er pan*, *trā* and *tan*, the use of *yr* (*y*) and that of *mai* after *os*, are optional.)

e.g. *gan y byddai yno*, since he would be there. (Aff.)

„ *nā* „ „ „ „ „ not be there. (Neg.)

„ *mai yno y byddai*, since it was there that he would be. (Aff.)

„ *nad* „ „ „ „ „ „ not there that he would be (Neg.)

NOTE.—Where the conjunction introducing an adverb clause is identical in form with a preposition, the clause in question may be viewed, historically, as a noun clause governed by a preposition.

Temporal Clauses (§ 346* a).

347a 1. Those whose action is marked as fact:—

pan orphenodd, aeth adref, when he finished, he went home.
mae yn ddig, er pan y daeth yn ôl, he is angry ever since he has come back.

ni chafodd lawer o gysur tra (y) bu yno, he did not get much comfort while he was there.

rhoddwch eich enwau, cyn yr ewch allan, give your names before you go out.

2. Those whose action is marked as (a) *prospective*, i.e. merely contemplated as a future contingency¹; or (b) *general*:—

(a) Prospective:

nes machludo yr haul, until the sun shall set.

Ch. Edwards, Hanes y Ffydd, 1671.

erbyn yr eloch i'ch llety, by the time that you go (= shall go) to your lodging. Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg, 1713.

wedi yr elo y bechgyn a'r genethod i'r adeilad newydd, after the boys and girls shall have gone to the new building. "Y Genedl," Dec. 28, 1897.

ni bydd y sêdd yn cael ei chyhoeddi yn wâg hyd onid ymgynhullo y Senedd, the seat will not be declared vacant until Parliament meets (= shall have met).

"Y Faner," Dec. 29, 1897.

¹ It is the contingency of these prospective actions that is mainly suggested by the Subjunctive in Welsh.

(b) General [*Ever-clauses of Time*]:

mi allaf, pan fyynnwyf, gael genthynt bob peth a berthyn,
etc., *I can, whenever I wish, obtain from them everything*
that belongs, etc. Gr. Roberts, Milan, flor. 1567.

pan byddo fy ngelynyon | yn edliw beiau f'oes, *whenever*
my enemies taunt me with the faults of my life. Emrys.
cewch fyned pan y mynnoch, *you can go whenever you*
wish.

cenir clôch pan fyddo cystadleuaeth gorawl i ddechreu, *a*
bell is rung when (= whenever) a choral competition is to
commence.

Prof. D. M. Lewis in "Y Geninen," April, 1893.

RULES:—1. Temporal Clauses take the Indicative, as in English, when the action is to be marked as *fact*: Negative nad (nā).

2. When the action is to be marked as *prospective* or *general*, the Temporal Clause takes the Present Subjunctive in present or future time; in past time the Past Imperfect Subjunctive, which is identical, in almost every verb, with the Past Imperfect Indicative (wyf, *I am*, has Past Imperf. Subjunctive S. 1. byddwn and bawn; câf has Past Imperf. Subj. S. 1. caiffwn and cawn): Neg. nad (nā).

OBS 1.—The use of the Subjunctive has become rare in current Welsh prose, and many of the expressions in which it occurs are stereotyped expressions like, fel y mynno, *as he pleases*; doed a ddelo, *come what may*, etc.

OBS. 2.—The conjunctions pryd bynnag, gydag (gyda), nes, hyd nes, oni, hyd oni, cyn and gwedi (wedi) do not take a negative clause, and gwedi (wedi) rarely takes a clause of past time.

Equivalent Phrases.

347b The place of an affirmative Clause of Time is often taken by a verb-noun phrase introduced by one of the prepositions cyn, *before*; erbyn, *by* (of time); gwedi (wedi), *after*; gydag (gyda), *with*; nes, hyd nes, *until*; wrth, *at*; and sometimes er, *since*:

e.g. erbyn imi gyrhaedd, yr oedd y drws wedi ei gau, *by the time that I arrived, the door was closed.*

cyn i'r dyn ddyfod, yr oeddwn yn canu, *before the man came, I was singing.*

af allan nes i'r cerbyd ddyfod, *I shall go out until the carriage comes.*

wedi imi edrych, yr oedd wedi myned, *when I looked, he had gone.*

cyn fy mod wedi gofyn, yr oedd ef wedi dweyd, *before I had asked, he had spoken.*

wrth iddo redeg, yr oedd yn gwaeddi, *as he ran, he shouted.*

The Subject and the Object of the corresponding Clause are represented according to the rules given in § 346b, p. 106.

Compare with these equivalents the French use of *après, after, jusqu'à, up to, avant de, before*, with the infinitive (where there is no change of Subject):

e.g. après avoir lu, il s'endort, after having read, he falls asleep.

après avoir lu, il s'endormit, after having read, he fell asleep.

Also *en, in*, with the gerund:

e.g. en lisant, while reading = wrth ddarllen.

Local Clauses (§ 346 * b).

- 348 1. Local Clauses (Clauses of Place) take, for the most part, the same constructions as Temporal Clauses (Clauses of Time). The word *lle* which introduces them probably represents an old ablative or locative (= *in the place*), and it is not unlikely that it was once the antecedent of the proclitic *yr*, which may have meant *in which*: see Accidence, §§ 167, 168.

2. In Modern Welsh Prose, the Subjunctive is only occasionally found in Local Clauses, and then, as a rule, only before forms like *byddo* (*bō*), *gallo*, and *mynno*, in certain stereotyped expressions:

e.g. lle y bō, wherever he may be; lle y mynno, wherever he will.

3. The Negative is *nad* (*nā*), but *nid* (*nī*) is not unfrequently used, especially where the action is emphasised as a fact.

4. The following are instances of the Subjunctive in Local Clauses:—

(1) Prospective:

ni feiddia hi ddywedyd ei meddwl lle bwyfi, she will not dare to speak her mind where I shall be.

Morgan Llwyd, c. 1653.

æd lle y mynno, let him go whithersoever he shall wish.

arhosed lle y caffo lonydd, let him stay where he shall have peace.

(2) General (*Ever*-Clauses of Place):

lle pallo'r grym, ewyllys da a haedda glöd, *wherever strength fails a good will deserves praise.*

Gr. Roberts, Milan, 1567.

gwir felly a ddywed y philosophydd na bydd uniawn barn
lle bo cariad ne gäs yn rheoli, *the philosopher therefore says truly that judgment will not be sound, wherever love or hate rules.*

Gr. Roberts, Milan, 1567.

lle bo dolur y bydd llaw, *wherever there is a wound there is a hand.* Welsh Proverb.

Causal Clauses (§ 346 * c).

349a | af allan, gan nad yw yn gwlawio, *I shall go out, since it is not raining.*

gorphenwch eich gwaith, gan y bydd yn nös yn fuan,
finish your work, as it will soon be night.

ysgrifenwch yn fuan, am y carwn gael ateb, *write soon, as I should like to have an answer.*

RULE.—Causal Clauses take the Indicative: Neg. nad (nā). The use of the Causal Clause is practically limited (as in the case of Concessive Clauses and Noun Clauses of Statement) to cases in which the clause is negative, or when its tense is—

either a Present used as a Present Habitual or as a Future, or a Past Imperfect used either as a Past Imperfect Habitual or as a Secondary Future (§§ 501, 502), or a Pluperfect used as a Secondary Future Perfect (§§ 521, 523).

Equivalent Phrases.

349b | The place of affirmative Causal Clauses is largely supplied in Welsh by verb-noun phrases depending on one of the prepositions gan, am, oherwydd, oblegid (§§ 288, 298).

When the verb of the corresponding Clause is in the Aorist or the Pluperfect (sometimes also in the Perfect), the doer of the action is denoted by the aid of the prep. i or o:

e.g. oherwydd i mi orphen, *because I finished.*

aeth allan oblegid iddo gael digon, *he went out because he had had enough.*

a ydych yn ddig am i'r llanc ddyfod? *are you angry because the lad has come?*

When the verb of the corresponding Clause is in the Present

Tense and marks an action as *now going on* or a state as *now existing*, or is in the Past Imperfect and marks an action as *going on in the past* or a state as *then existing*, *bōd* is employed, followed by the required verb-noun with *yn* : ¹

e.g. gan ei fod yn gweled, *since he sees* ; gan na wēl, *since he does not see*.

gan ei fod yn gweled, *since he saw* ; gan na welai, *since he did not see*.

Similarly *bōd* followed by a verb-noun with *wedi*, expresses a Perfect or a Pluperfect :

e.g. gan fod y dyn wedi myned, *since the man has (or had) gone*.

The Subject of the corresponding Clause is represented with *bōd* in these cases as described in § 346b.

Cf. the French Clause-equivalents (without change of Subject) : *pour avoir, for having* ; *en voulant, by wishing, because one wishes*.

Final Clauses (§ 346 * d).

350

ac yno y gwnā i'r newynog aros, fel y darparont ddinas i gyfaneddu, *and there He maketh the hungry to dwell, that they may prepare a city for habitation*. Ps. cvii. 36.
tyfiant gwastad yw bywyd cenedl : y mae iddo ei wreiddiau yn y gorphenol, fel y gallo ddwyn firwyth yn y dyfodol, *the life of a nation is a steady growth, it has its roots in the past, that it may be able to bear fruit in the future*.

Dean Howell in "Y Geninen," April, 1893.
nid gwiw i ddynion garu Duw fel y gallont gashau dynion, *it is not right that men should love God in order that they may hate men*.

"Y Genedl," Dec. 28, 1897.
gweithiai fel y gallai enill ei fara beunyddiol, *he worked that he might earn his daily bread*.

RULES.—1. Final Clauses properly take the Subjunctive ; but this use of the Subjunctive is now being more and more supplanted by the Indicative. Negative *nad* (*nā*).

2. *in order that* . . . *not* is *rhag*, *fel nad*, *nad : lest* . . . *not* is *rhag nad* (*nā*).

¹ If the verb of the Clause be one of the following : *adwaen, I know* ; *clywaf, I hear* ; *gallaf, I am able* ; *gwelaf, I see* ; *gwn, I know* ; *meddaf, I possess* ; and *medraf, I am able* ; this meaning may be expressed by means of a clause.

Equivalent Phrases.

- 351 The place of affirmative Final Clauses is very largely supplied in Welsh by verb-noun phrases introduced by the prepositions *i*, *er*, *rhag*, and the prepositional phrase *er mwyn*. (Where the verb-noun phrase contains the preposition *i*, another preposition *i* is not added; one *i* does duty for both.)

af i'r ty er mwyn imi gael gorphwys, I shall go into the house to have rest (=in order that I may have rest).

aeth i'r ty er mwyn iddo gael gorphwys, he went into the house to have rest (=in order that he might have rest).

daeth i'r ystafell i ysgrifenu, he came to the room to write.

ewch allan i chwi gael gweled rhywbeth, go out that you may see something.

gofalwch rhag i chwi gael anwyd, take care lest you should get a cold.

Cf. the French equivalents of a Final Clause (without change of Subject): *pour aller, in order to go*; *afin de vivre, in order to live*; Gk. *βουλεύεσθαι, τοῦ βουλεύεσθαι, in order to deliberate*; Lat. *ad deliberandum, deliberandi causā, deliberātum (supine), in order to deliberate*; Germ. *zu geben, um zu geben, in order to give*; as well as the English infinitive with *to, in order to*.

Consecutive Clauses (§ 346 *e).

352a

*arhosodd yn y gwlaw, fel } y gwlychodd drwyddo, he stayed
 nes }*
in the rain, so that he got wet through.

mae ei ddewrder yn gyfryw, fel nad yw yn ofni dim, his courage is such that he fears nothing.

a ydych chwi mor ddeillion nas gallwch fy ngweled? are you so blind that you cannot see me?

yr hwn sydd yn cynhyrfu y ddaear allan o'i llê, fel y cryno ei cholofnau hi, which shaketh the earth out of her place, and (=that) the pillars thereof tremble. Job ix. 6.

RULES.—1. Result is expressed by means of *fel* and *nes*: *fel* may take the negative *nad* (*nā*), but *nes* is never used with the negative. For *fel nad* (*nā*), *nad* (*nā*) alone is sometimes used.

2. The mood is the Indicative, but instances with the Subjunctive are occasionally found.

Equivalent Phrases.

- 352b Consecutive verb-noun phrases are introduced by the preposition *nes*:

e.g. arhosodd yn y gwllaw, nes iddo wlychu, he stayed in the rain, so that he got wet.

edrychai yr athraw mor ddig, nes i'r plentyn ddychryn, the master looked so angry that the child was frightened.

Cf. the French equivalents of a Consecutive Clause (without change of Subject) formed by means of *en sorte de*, *de manière à*, *de façon à*, with the infinitive. Fr. Gram. § 352.*

If-Clauses (§ 346 *f).

- 353 1. A Complex Sentence, consisting of an Adverb-Clause of Condition (the If-clause, sometimes called the Protasis) and a Principal Clause (sometimes called the Apodosis), is called a Conditional Sentence.

2 Conditional Sentences may be divided into two main classes—

A. Those in which the Principal Clause does not speak of what *would be* or *would have been*, and the If-clause implies nothing as to fact or fulfilment:

e.g. if this is correct, that is incorrect: os yw hyn yn gywir, mae hynyna yn anghywir.

B. Those in which the Principal Clause speaks of what *would be* or *would have been*, and the If-clause contains an implication as to fact or fulfilment:

e.g. pē delai y brenin, llawenychem, if the king were to come (implying 'I do not say that he will come'), we should rejoice.

pē delasai y brenin, llawenychasem, if the king had come (implying 'he did not come'), we should have rejoiced.

Obs.—In some languages there is a less important class (Class C) resembling Class A, in which the Principal Clause is the same as in Class A, but the If-clause contains a slight implication as to fact or fulfilment. In Welsh this implication can be indicated only by the tone of the voice.

CLASS A (CONDITIONAL SENTENCES CONTAINING OS-CLAUSES).

354

Past time : os gweithredodd felly, yr oedd ar fai, *if he acted so, he was in the wrong.*

Present time : os yw yn gwiethredu felly, mae ar fai, *if he acts so, he is in the wrong.*

Future time : os gweithreda felly, bydd ar fai, *if he acts (= shall act) so, he will be in the wrong.*

os nā weithreda felly, bydd ar fai, *unless he acts (= shall act) so, he will be in the wrong.*

RULES.—1. When the Principal Clause does not speak of what *would be* or *would have been*, 'if' is expressed by os,* and the mood of the If-clause is the Indicative. Negative nad (nā): but for os nad (os nā) we sometimes find onid (oni).†

2. The time referred to need not be the same in both clauses :

e.g. os gweithredodd felly, ni lwydda, *if he acted so (in the past), he will not succeed (in the future).*

os yw wedi cychwyn, fe ddaw, *if he has started, he will come.*

3. The Principal Clause of this class is free, i.e. may contain a Statement in the Indicative, or an expression of Command or Wish :

e.g. os wyt yna, tyr'd yma, *if thou art there, come here.*

os yw yn foddllon, bōed felly, *if he is willing, be it so.*

354b

General Conditions are a subordinate variety of If-clause without implication, in which 'if' = 'if ever'; the Principal Clause expressing a habitual action or a general truth :—

os lladda nēb, fe'i cosbir, *if any one kills, he will be punished.*

os lladdai nēb, fe'i cosbid, *if any one killed, he was punished.*

In clauses of this type, os byth is often used for 'if ever.'

CLASS B (CONDITIONAL SENTENCES CONTAINING PE-CLAUSES).

355

Past time : pē gwnelsai hyn, buasai ar fai, *if he had done this, he would have been in the wrong.*

Present time : pē gwnelai hyn, byddai ar fai, *if he were doing this, he would be in the wrong.*

Future time : pe gwnelai hyn, byddai ar fai, *if he were to do this, he would be in the wrong.*

* For os, ô and od are sometimes found.

† =ô+ni.

RULES.—1. When the Principal Clause speaks of what *would be* or *would have been*, 'if' is expressed by *pē*,* and the tense of both the If-clause and the Principal Clause is—

the Past Imperf.† when referring to pres. or fut. time.

the Pluperf. when referring to past time.

The Neg. is *nad* (*nā*); but for *pē nad* (*pē nā*), we sometimes find *onid* (*oni*).

OBS.—These tenses may possibly be regarded as tenses of the Subjunctive in the If-clause, corresponding to the English Subjunctive (*e.g. were*); in the Principal Clause they are tenses of the Indicative, the Past Impf. being used as a Secondary Future and the Pluperfect as a Secondary Fut. Perf. corresponding to the so-called "Conditionnel" in French (see §§ 501, 502, 521, 522). In most verbs the Past Imperfect and the Pluperfect Subjunctive are indistinguishable in form from the corresponding tenses of the Indicative, but a distinction seems to have been developed in the Past Imperfect of *wyf* and *cāf*; and the instances in which these verbs are used may be considered as determining the rule for all other instances. So too in English, "if I had" might be Indic., but "if I were" can only be a Subjunctive.

2. An If-clause referring to past time may be joined to a Principal Clause referring to present time and *vice versa* :

e.g. pe nā buaswn wedi ei weled, byddai yn anhawdd gennyf gredu, if I had not seen him, I should find it hard to believe.

3. 'if-only' is expressed by means of *am*, followed by a verb in the Present Subjunctive or in the Future Indicative, if the verb in the main clause be in a tense of present or future time; in the Past Imperfect Subjunctive, if the verb of the main clause be in a tense of past time :

e.g. fe fydd yn dawel, am y caiff ddigon o arian, he will be content if only he has (=shall have) sufficient money.

fe fyddai yn dawel, am y caffai ddigon o arian, he used to be content, if only he had sufficient money.

356 N.B.—*am, if only*, is not used to introduce negative clauses.

Equivalent Phrases.

357 1. Conditional verb-noun phrases introduced by the prepositions *oddieithr*, *oddigerth*, *except*, are used to express a negative condition :

e.g. oddieithr } fy mod, or imi fod yno, unless I be there.
oddigerth }

* *pē*, if (occasionally *ped* and *pes*), has arisen from *pei* (an old form of the Past Imperf. Subjunctive S. 3. of *wyf*)=*bei*=*bai*, *were it*. See Appendix.

† The Past Imperf. Habitual in the case of *wyf*.

2. 'if only' may be expressed by the conjunction *ond*, but, followed by a verb-noun phrase:

e.g. ond imi gael hamdden, if only I have (=shall have) leisure.

3. Sometimes a verb-noun phrase introduced by one of the prepositions *wrth*, *by*, *drwy*, *through*, may be considered as the equivalent of a Conditional Clause:

e.g. ni lwydda neb wrth ddiogi, no one will succeed by idling (= if he idles).

Cf. the possible French equivalent of a Conditional Clause (without change of Subject), formed by means of 'en' with the Gerund: *e.g. en agissant, by acting = if he acts.* Fr. Gram. § 357.

Concessive Clauses (§ 346 * g).

358a The Principal Clause corresponding to a Concessive Clause has an *adversative* meaning, i.e. it expresses what is true *in spite of* what is granted or conceded:

*e.g. er
serch } na bydd ef ei hŷn yno, bydd ei galon yno, though
 he will not be there himself, his heart will be there.
er nad yw y tād yma, mae y mab yma, though the father is
 not here, the son is here.
fe erys yn yr ūn fan, er y bydd hynny yn anfantais iddo,
 he will stay in the same place, though that will be a
 disadvantage to him.*

RULES.—1. The mood in clauses introduced by *er* and *serch* is the Indicative. Neg. *nad* (*nā*).

2. *pē*, *even if*, (often preceded by *ie*, *yes*, *yea*) is used with the Past Imperfect as in § 355. The main clause generally has a verb in the Past Imperfect Indicative used as a Secondary Future, or in the Pluperfect Indicative used as a Secondary Future Perfect (see § 522), but the Future is also sometimes used. Neg. *nad* (*nā*):

*e.g. ie, pe rhodiwn ar hyd glyn cysgod anghu, nid ofnaf niwed,
yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of
death, I will fear no evil. Ps. xxiii. 4.*

3. *cyd*, *though* (rare), takes the Subjunctive Mood. Neg. *nad* (*nā*):

e.g. cyd na byddo ond ammod dyn, though it be but a man's covenant. Gal. iii. 5.

N.B.—Concessive Clauses are subject to the same limitations of usage as Causal Clauses (§§ 349a, 349b).

Equivalent Phrases.

358b 1. The place of Concessive Clauses is very largely supplied by the use of verb-noun phrases :

- e.g. er } fy mod yn myned, *though I am going (was*
 serch } *going).*
 ,, } fy mod wedi myned, *though I have gone (had*
 } *gone).*
 er } imi fyned, *though I went (had gone).*
 serch }

N.B.—Concessive phrases are employed under the same conditions as Causal phrases (§ 349b).

2. Sometimes Concessive Clause-equivalents are introduced by the preposition *dros*, *over* :

- e.g. *fe ddaw yma, dros iddo orfod cerdded, he will come here, though he might have to walk.*

3. Cf. the French equivalents of a Concessive Clause (without change of Subject) formed by means of *pour* with the infinitive and *en* with the gerund (Fr. Gram. § 358) :

- e.g. *pour aimer un mari, l'on ne hait pas ses frères, though one should love a husband, one need not hate one's brothers.*
tout en aimant ses enfants, elle les néglige, though she loves her children, she neglects them.

Comparative Clauses (§ 346 * h).

359a Comparative Clauses fall into two divisions, according as they are introduced by words meaning (1) 'as,' (2) 'than,' thus corresponding to the Comparative of Equality and the Comparative proper respectively.

A. Introduced by words meaning 'as': e.g. *ag* (after Comparatives of Equality), *fel*, *fel ag*, *megis*, *megis ag* :

- nid yw cyn gyfoethoced ag y bu, he is not so rich as he was.*
mae y peth fel yr wyf yn dweyd, the thing is as I say.
aeth yno fel ag yr oedd, he went there just as he was.
gwnaeth megis y dywedodd, he did as he had said.

RULES.—I. Words meaning 'as' almost always take the Indicative in Modern Welsh, though the Subjunctive is sometimes found in such expressions as—*fel y mynno, as he may wish* ; *fel y gallo, as he may be able* ; *fel y bo, as it may be* :

e.g. boed hynny fel y bō, *be that as it may* (Subj.). Contrast :
mae hynny fel yr oedd, *that is as it was* (Indic.).

pwyl ohonoch a draethodd y gellwch 'i orchymyn angylion
Duw fal y mynnoch eych hunan? *who of you stated*
that you can command the angels of God as you yourselves
wish (=shall or may wish)? M. Kyffin, 1595.

megis ag y byddo pōb ūn wedi darfod, *just as each shall*
have finished. C. Edwards, 1671.

pōb ūn fel y gallo allan o'r Ysgrythyrau Sanctaidd, *each as*
he may be able out of the Holy Scriptures.

C. Edwards, 1671.

2. If the same verb belongs to both clauses of the sentence,
it is often omitted in the Comparative Clause:

e.g. derbyniasant eu gilydd fel brodyr, *they received each other*
as brethren.

3. *The more—the more* is expressed by using the Superlative
preceded by pō (the old Ablative of the interrogative pronoun) at
the beginning of the one clause, and at the beginning of the other
the Superlative alone:

e.g. po iachaf y bo dyn, cryfaf ōll fydd, *the healthier a man is,*
the stronger he will be. Contrast Latin *quō . . . cō*
with Comparatives.

 After pō with the Superlative, the Subjunctive is not
unfrequently used.

B. Introduced by nag (nā), *than*:

gwell (yw) tewi na siarad yn ofer, *it is better to be silent*
than to talk vainly: for nag ydyw siarad, etc.

RULE.—nag (nā), *than*, takes the Indicative, which is often
omitted when the same verb is used in both clauses.

Equivalent Phrases.

359b Sometimes the word uwch, the Comparative of uchel, *high*,
used as a preposition,* introduces a phrase which is equivalent in
meaning to a Comparative Clause:

e.g. maent uwch eu prisio, uwch eu deall, *they are too exalted*
to be appraised or understood (lit. *above appraising, above*
understanding. Cf. Lat. Gram. § 360: Gk. Gram.
§ 360, 2.)

* The word following uwch was doubtless originally in an oblique case cor-
responding to the Greek Genitive of Comparison and the Latin Ablative of
Comparison.

Combinations of 'as' and 'than' (representing a Comparative Clause) with a Clause of Condition.

- 360 1. mae yn cerdded, fel pe bai yn frenin, *he walks as if he were a king.*
 rhedodd fel pe buasai am ei fywyd, *he ran as if it had been for his life.*
 mae cyn galeded a phe buasai yn garreg, *it is as hard as if it had been a stone.*

RULE.—*as if* (= *as would be the case if*) is expressed by *ā phē* (after the Comparative of Equality), or *fel pē*, with the same construction as *pē, if*, § 355 [Latin: quasi, velut s., tamquam si; Gk. ὡς περ εἰ or ὡς περ ἂν εἰ].

2. meddalach ydyw na phe buasai yn ymenyn, *it is softer than if it had been butter.*

RULE.—*than if* (= *than would be the case if*) is expressed by *na phē* (after the Comparative proper) with the same construction as *pē, if*, § 355.

Absolute Phrases (for Absolute Clauses).

- 361 | The Welsh equivalent for the so-called Absolute Clauses of other languages (Latin Ablative Absolute, Greek Genitive Absolute, English Nominative Absolute) is a phrase in which the participle of Latin, Greek and English is replaced by a verb-noun with one of the prepositions *yn, in*; *wedi, after*; *ar, on*; *am, about*; *heb, without* (see § 240); the phrase as a whole being preceded by the word *ac (a)*:

e.g. aeth i'r ystafell a'r dynion yn bwyta, he went into the room while the people were eating [Lat. hominibus edentibus: Gk. τῶν ἀνθρώπων ἐσθιόντων].

arosasant yno a'r tŷn wedi diffodd, they stayed there after the fire had gone out.

buont yn ymdroi a'r trŷn ar gychwyn, they loitered while the train was on the point of starting.

dywedasant wrtho ac yntau heb ofyn, they told him, though he had not asked.

NOTE.—As *ac, and, and ag, with*, are only the same word applied to different uses and differently spelt, it is highly probable that *ac*, in the phrases in question, should be looked upon as the preposition *ag, with* (with its old spelling *ac* preserved). Hence the Welsh mode of expression is parallel with the Latin idiom in its original meaning, the Ablative Absolute having origin-

ated in an Ablative denoting Accompaniment or Cause or Time ; for instance, the Latin, 'Trojā stante,' *Troy standing*, and the Welsh 'a Chaerdroia yn sefyll' may both have originally meant 'with Troy standing.'

The place of the preposition and the verb-noun may be taken by a Predicate-noun or a Predicate-adjective :

e.g. aeth allan { a'r gwynt yn ôr,
 { a hithau " "
 { *though the wind was cold.*
he went out { *though it was cold.*

OBS. 1.—In Absolute Phrases, the conjunctive personal pronouns (see Accidence, §§ 130, 131, 132) are largely employed.

OBS. 2.—In meaning, an Absolute Phrase may be equivalent to a Temporal, Causal, Conditional or Concessive Clause.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES (§ 313).

362 1. Adjective Clauses are introduced by Relative pronouns, yr hwn, y nêb, y sawl, pw y bynnag, referring to a noun or noun-equivalent called the Antecedent, expressed or implied in the Principal Clause, or by one of the quasi-relatives ag, ar, or by one of the proclitics a, yr (y).

2. A Relative Clause takes the form of a sentence of inverted order ; hence, if the Subject or the Object precede the verb, the verb will be immediately preceded by the word a ; if some other word or group of words comes first, by the word yr (y). (See p. 83, note, and Appendix).

OBS. 1.—a is frequently omitted ; with the forms wyf etc., oeddwn etc., and with sydd it is never used.

OBS. 2.—In Relative Clauses where yr hwn, y nêb, y sawl or pw y bynnag are expressed, it is certain that the modern Welsh mind attaches the relative force to these words and not to the a or yr (y) which immediately precedes the verb. The latter are, from the point of view of Welsh descriptive grammar, mere 'form-words,' and, in the words of Dr. Davies, a is an adverb or particle of no meaning prefixed to verbs ("A item est adverbium seu particula verbis preposita nihil significans"). So strongly is this felt that, when the proclitics a and yr (y) are used alone in Relative Clauses, a Welshman ignorant of their history naturally imagines the omission of yr hwn. See § 573, 576.

3. In place of *yr hwn* and *y rhai*, *pa ūn* and *pa rai* (cf. Breton 'péré') are sometimes used, but these forms are not considered very elegant. Even *yr hwn* and *y rhai* should not be used too frequently, especially after prepositions. The form of expression given in *Accidence* § 168 will often be found useful in translating English Relative Clauses.

Agreement of the Relative.

- 363 1. In idiomatic Welsh *every* relative introducing an affirmative clause is looked upon as of the 3rd pers. *sing.* and the verb of which it is the Subject is made to agree with it; in negative Relative Clauses the Relative agrees with its Antecedent in person and number :

e.g. gwelsom y dynion y rhai a fu yno, *we saw the men who were there.*

yr wyf yn eich hoffi chwi, na fuoch yn gās wrthyf, *I am fond of you, who were not unkind to me.*

pawb sydd yn pwysu atat ti | a wrendy weddi dostur, *all incline towards thee, who hearest a prayer for mercy.*

E. Prys.

ni a'th adwaenom di a'th ddawn | i'r rhai sydd uniawn galon, *we know thee and thy bounty to them that are upright in heart.*

E. Prys.

2. For a long time, however, there has been a strong and perfectly intelligible tendency, especially where the linguistic consciousness is bilingual, to make the verb of the Relative Clause agree with its Antecedent as in Latin and English. This tendency is strongest and most natural in cases where it seems desirable to call attention to the person and number of the verb in the Relative Clause :

e.g. ein Tād, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, *our Father, who art in heaven.* Here the use of *wyt* rather than *sydd* forcibly reminds the reader that the clause in question is used in address and not in narrative.

RULES.—Relative Clauses almost always take the Indicative Mood in Modern Welsh. The Subjunctive is now rare, but is sometimes found in clauses where the action is to be marked as *prospective* or *general*. The general is often combined with the prospective meaning. The negative is generally *nid* (ni), especially where the action is to be marked as *fact*, in clauses introduced by *ar*, *yr hwn*, *y neb*, *y sawl* and *pw y bynnag*: in negative clauses corresponding to affirmative clauses in which the *a* or *yr* (*y*) would be used alone, the negative is *nad* (nā), but *nid* (nī) is also sometimes used. In all negative clauses *a* and *yr* (*y*) are omitted.

3. Final and Consecutive Relative Clauses:—

anfonwn genad yno, yr hwn a rydd derfyn ar yr ymrafael,
we shall send a messenger there, who shall put an end to
the dispute. (Final.)

nid oes undyn a allai oddef peth felly, there is no one who
could stand such a thing as that. (Consecutive).

dechymyger rywbeth arall a fo gwell nag ef, let something
else be imagined that shall be better than it.

Dr. J. D. Rhys, 1592.

lle bo gwr o ddysg a wypo ei deilyngdod, where there may
be a man of learning who knows his worth.

E. Samuel, 1674–1748.

RULE.—In the special kinds of Relative Clause called **Final** and **Consecutive** the Indicative Mood is employed, but instances of the Subjunctive are found.

N.B.—A Relative Clause which cites an act only to exhibit the character of the Antecedent may be called a “Characterizing Relative Clause”:

e.g. nid oes neb nad yw yn pechu, there is no one that does not
sin.

NOUN CLAUSES AND PHRASES.

365 Noun Clauses may be divided into two main classes :

A. That-clauses :

- (i) Those which express that something *is, was* or *will be* (Dependent Statements): e.g. gwn y bydd yn ufudd, *I know that he will be obedient.*
- (ii) Those which express that something *shall be* or *should be* (Dependent Will-speech *): e.g. gofalaf y bydd yn ufudd, *I shall take care that he shall be obedient*; gorchymynaf na byddo yn anufudd; *I order that he shall not be disobedient.*

B. Those which are introduced by an interrogative or exclamatory word :

- (i) Interrogative (Dependent Questions): e.g. gofynaf a ydyw yn ufudd, *I ask whether he is obedient.*
- (ii) Exclamatory (Dependent Exclamations): e.g. rhyfedd mor ufudd ydyw heddyw, *it is strange how obedient he is to-day.*

RULE.—As a general rule, the mood in Noun Clauses is the Indicative: but in Dependent Will-speech after verbs of *commanding, entreating, praying, wishing*, which are followed by negative clauses only, the Present or Past Imperfect Subjunctive is used. Negative nad (nā).

N.B.—Whether a Noun Clause is a Dependent Statement or Dependent Will-speech, or a Dependent Question or a Dependent Exclamation does not depend upon the verb of the Principal Clause, but upon the nature of the Subordinate Clause itself, i.e. whether that clause is a *Statement* (i.e. a statement of fact or a conditional statement) or an expression of *aim, command, or request, or a question or an exclamation.* (See § 340.)

Thus 'that it is (was or will be)' is always a Dep. *Statement.*

'that it shall be (or should be)' is always Dep. *Will-speech.*

'what (or how) it is' is a Dep. *Question* when the 'what' or 'how' is interrogative, and a Dep. *Exclamation* when the 'what' (or 'how') is exclamatory.

In certain cases phrases formed with verb-nouns are used as substitutes for Dependent Statements and Dependent Will-speech, but not for Dependent Questions and Dependent Exclamations.

* By Dependent Will-speech is only meant a clause which expresses that something *shall be* or *should be*. Such a clause differs from a Dependent Statement (whether of fact or conditional) just as Will-speech in the Simple Sentence differs from a Statement.

In all other cases Noun Phrases are employed, the doer of the action being denoted as follows :—

- (a) by the aid of the preposition *i* or *o* (§ 346b, 2), when the verb-noun corresponds to a verb in the Aorist or the Pluperfect with past meaning :

e.g. *gwn iddo orphen, I know that he finished ;*
gwyddwn iddo orphen, I knew that he had finished.

- (b) without the aid of a preposition, by means of a dependent noun or a possessive adjective, when the verb-noun is *bōd* corresponding to the true Present *wyf, wyt, mae*, etc., or to the true Past Imperfect *oeddwn, oeddit, oedd*, etc., in a Clause (§ 346b, 3) :

e.g. *gwn fod y dyn yn myned, I know that the man is going ;*
gwn ei fod wedi myned, I know that he has gone.

OBS.—If the verb of the dependent clause be one of the following :

adwaen, adnabyddaf, I recognise

[Lat. *cognoscō*]

clywaf, I hear

gallaf, I am able

gwelaf, I see

gwn, I know [Lat. *sciō*]

meddaf, I possess

medraf, I am able

a clause may be employed even when the Present tense marks an action as *now going on* or a state as *now existing*, or the Past Imperfect marks an action as *going on in the past* or a state as *then existing*, or, less frequently, when the Pluperfect refers to past time.

Employment of Noun Clauses of Will-speech and Equivalent Phrases.

AFTER VERBS OF EFFORT (§ 369a, 9).

- 368a 1. A verb of Effort may take either a Noun Clause (affirmative or negative) or a Noun Phrase :

e.g. *gofalaf y bydd y gwās yno* } *I take (or shall take) care that.*
gofalaf fod y gwās yno } *the servant shall be there.*
gofelais y byddai y gwās yno } *I took care that the servant*
gofelais fod y gwās yno } *should be there.*

2. A Noun Phrase depending on the verb *gofalaf, I take care*, is generally preceded by the fixed preposition *am, for* :

e.g. *gofelais am iddo tod yno, I took care that he should be there.*

3. In Noun Phrases depending on a verb of Effort the doer of the action is generally denoted—

either (a) by means of a dependent noun or a possessive adjective (§ 346b, 3) when the verb-noun is *bōd*,
 or (b) by means of the prep. *i* or *o* in the case of all verb-nouns (*bod* included). (§ 346b, 2).

AFTER VERBS OF WILL AND DESIRE (§ 369a, 10).

- 368b 1. A verb of Will or Desire takes a Noun Clause only when the Dependent Will-speech is negative or of inverted order :

e.g. gorchymynodd nad elwn yno, *he ordered that I should not go thither.*

dymunaf mai John a gaiff y wobr, 'I wish that *John* should have the prize.'

2. If the Dependent Will-speech is affirmative and of normal order, many verbs of Will or Desire take neither a Noun Clause nor a Noun Phrase, but simply two Objects in a Simple Sentence with a Predicate of the Fourth Form (§ 333) ; so too in English :

e.g. gorchymynaf iddo fyned, *I order him to go.*

crefais arno ddyfod, *I begged of him to come.*

In dependence on the verbs anogaf, *I exhort*, and cynghoraf, *I advise*, the verb-noun is introduced by the preposition *i*, *to* :

e.g. cynghoraf ef i ddyfod, *I advise him to come.*

3. In some cases a verb of Will or Desire may take after it a Noun Phrase introduced by the fixed preposition *ar*, *on*. The verbs which may take this construction are, crefaf, *I beg* ; deisyfaf, *I entreat* ; dymunaf, *I desire* ; gorchymynaf, *I command* ; and gweddiaf, *I pray* :

e.g. dymunaf ar i'r dyn dewi, *I desire the man to be silent.*

With the use of these Noun Phrases of Statement and Will-Speech compare the French use of the infinitive (without change of Subject) in place of a Clause after croire, prétendre, vouloir, ordonner :

e.g. je crois l'avoir vu, *I believe that I saw him* ; je lui ordonne de venir, *I order him to come.*

A Noun Phrase, formed with peidio, *ceasing* (see Accidence, § 284.4), or with bōd followed by heb with another verb-noun, may be equivalent to a negative clause :

e.g. addefodd iddo beidio (a) myned, *he admitted that he did not go* (lit. *that he ceased to go*).

cyffesodd ei fod heb ateb, *he confessed that he had not answered* (lit. *that he was without answering*).

369a List of Verbs taking Dependent Statements and Will-Speech.

1. Verbs of 'saying':—

addawaf,	<i>I promise</i>	cymeraf arnaf,	<i>I pretend</i>
addefaf,	<i>I admit</i>	dywedaf,	<i>I say</i>
awgrymaf,	<i>I suggest</i>	gwadaf,	<i>I deny</i>
bygythiaf,	<i>I threaten</i>	tyngaf,	<i>I swear</i>

2. Verbs of 'thinking':—

credaf,	} <i>I believe</i>	gobeithiaf,	<i>I hope</i>
coeliaf,		disgwyliaf,	<i>I expect</i>
dychymygaf,	<i>I imagine</i>	meddyliaf,	<i>I think</i>
dylafaf,	<i>I guess</i>	tybiaf,	<i>I suppose</i>

3. Verbs of 'perceiving':—

câf,	<i>I find</i>	darganfyddaf,	<i>I discover</i>
canfyddaf,	<i>I perceive</i>	gwelaf,	<i>I see</i>
clywaf,	<i>I hear</i>		

4. Verbs of 'knowing':—

anghofiaf,	<i>I forget</i>	gwn,	<i>I know</i>
cofiaf,	<i>I remember</i>		

5. Verbs of 'showing':—

amlygaf,	<i>I reveal</i>	egluraf,	<i>I show</i>
cyhoeddaf,	<i>I announce</i>	profaf,	<i>I prove</i>
danghosaf,	<i>I show</i>		

6. Verbs of 'rejoicing,' 'grieving' and 'wondering':—

llawenychaf,	<i>I rejoice</i>	rhyfeddaf,	<i>I wonder</i>
gofidiaf,	<i>I grieve</i>	synnaf,	<i>I marvel</i>

(N.B.—These verbs of 'rejoicing,' 'grieving,' and 'wondering' are rarely followed by an affirmative clause of normal order.)

7. Verb of 'fearing':—*ofnaf, I fear.*

8. Certain impersonal expressions denoting 'it happens,' 'it is possible,' 'it is right,' etc.:—

dichon,*	<i>it is possible</i>	hwyrach,	} <i>perhaps</i>
mae yn digwydd,	<i>it happens</i>	ond odid,	
rhaid,	<i>it must needs be</i>	diammeu,	<i>undoubtedly</i>
efallai,	} <i>perhaps</i>	gwlr,	<i>(it is) true</i>
feallai,		diau,	<i>(it is) certain</i>

9. Verbs of Effort:—

gofalaf,	<i>I take care</i>	paraf,	<i>I cause</i>
gwelaf,	<i>I see to it</i>	sicrhâf,	<i>I make certain</i>
gwnâf,	<i>I bring it about</i>		

* *dichon* is also not unfrequently used in a personal construction, when it means *can, is able*. See *Accidence*, § 277, 3.

10. Verbs of Will or Desire :—

anogaf,	<i>I exhort</i>	dymunaf,	<i>I wish</i>
bwriadaf,	<i>I intend</i>	ewyllysiaf,	<i>I desire</i>
crefaf,	<i>I beg</i>	gorchymynaf,	<i>I command</i>
cynghoraf,	<i>I advise</i>	gweddiaf,	<i>I pray</i>
deisyfaf,	<i>I entreat</i>		

Note carefully that after verbs of Effort, Will or Desire the dependent clause or clause-equivalent expresses that something *shall be* or *should be* (not that something *is*, *was*, or *will be*) :

e.g. gofalwn y bydd rhywun yno, we shall take care that someone shall be there.

bwriadwn iddo fyned, I intended that he should go.

Sequence of Tenses in Dependent Statements and Will-Speech.

369b In dependence on a tense of past time a primary tense [i.e. a Present or Future or Perfect or Future Perfect] is generally changed into the corresponding secondary tense, viz. :—

a Present	into a Past Imperfect
Future	Secondary Future
Perfect	Pluperfect
Future Perfect	Secondary Fut. Perf.

e.g. dywed mai John yw y cryfaf, he says that John is the strongest.

dywedodd mai John oedd y cryfaf, he said that John was the strongest.

dywed mai John fydd y cryfaf, he says that John will be the strongest.

dywedodd mai John fyddai y cryfaf, he said that John would be the strongest.

dywed mai John sydd wedi gweithio, he says it is John that has worked.

dywedodd mai John oedd wedi gweithio, he said it was John that had worked.

dywed mai John fydd wedi gweithio, he says it will be John that will have worked.

dywedodd mai John fyddai wedi gweithio, he said it would be John that would have worked.

The secondary tenses (Past Imperfect, Pluperfect, and Aorist) remain unchanged.

Dependent Questions.

370a 1. Dependent Questions are introduced either (a) by interrogative particles (see Accidence, §§ 283, 285):

- a, in affirmative questions of normal order ;
 ai, in negative questions of normal order, and in affirmative and negative questions of inverted order.

pā ūn ^a_{ai} } — ai, *whether* — or.

e.g. gofynaf a yw John yno, *I ask whether John is there.*

gofynais ai John oedd yno, *I asked whether it was John that was there.*

gofynodd ai ni chafodd John y llyfr, *he asked whether John did not receive the book.*

gofynodd ai nid y llyfr a gafodd John, *he asked whether it was not the book that John received.*

gofynent pa ūn a fyddai John yno ai peidio, *they were asking whether John would be there or not.*

gofynent pa ūn ai John ynte William oedd yno, *they were asking whether it was John or William that was there.*

Obs. 1. For pa ūn, p'ūn, and also p'r'ūn (=pā ryw ūn) are used, especially in colloquial Welsh.

2. In Dependent Questions of inverted order, the conjunction ynte, or, is generally used to introduce the second alternative.

or (b) by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs, such as

pŵy,	<i>who</i>	pā fāth,	<i>what kind</i>
pā,	<i>which, what (adj.)</i>	pā faint,	<i>how much</i>
pā sawl,	<i>how many</i>	pā lē (p'lē),	<i>where</i>
pā gynnifer	" "	paham,	<i>why</i>

e.g. gofynais pwy fu yno, *I asked who was there.*

gofynais pwy na fu yno, *I asked who was not there.*

holent pa fath ddynion oeddym, *they enquired what kind of men we were.*

holais paham nad aethent yno, *I enquired why they had not gone there.*

The mood in (a) and (b) is the indicative. In (a), the negative, in questions of normal order, is nid (nī), in questions of inverted order, nid, before both vowels and consonants ; in (b), the negative is nad (nā), but nid (nī) is also sometimes used.

Deliberative Dependent Questions.

- 370b** Deliberative Dependent Questions (i.e. Dependent Questions as to what is or was to be done) are introduced in the same manner as other Dependent Questions :

e.g. *gofynais a oeddwn i fyned, I asked whether I was to go.*

gofynodd ai nid oedd i fyned, he asked whether he was not to go.

petruswn pa fin a awn yno ai peidio, I hesitated whether I should go there or not.

The mood is the Indicative. The negative is *nid* (ni).

Dependent Exclamations.

- 370c** Dependent Exclamations are introduced by exclamatory adverbs such as *mor*, *how*, or without an exclamatory adverb when the Dependent Exclamation begins with an adjective in the comparative of equality :

e.g. *gwelwch mor odidog odidoced } yw yr adeilad, see how splendid the building is.*

rhyfeddent mor flin flined } oedd y daith, they marvelled how tedious the journey was.

Sequence of Tenses in Dependent Questions and Exclamations.

- 370*** The same rules of sequence apply to Dependent Questions and Exclamations as to Dependent Statements and Will-Speech (§ 369b).

e.g. (1) **Dependent Questions.**

gofynaf ai John yw y cryfaf, I ask whether John is the strongest.

gofynwn ai John oedd y cryfaf, I was asking whether John was the strongest.

gofynaf a fyddwch yn y cyfarfod, I ask whether you will be at the meeting.

gofynais a fydddech yn y cyfarfod, I asked whether you would be at the meeting.

(2) **Dependent Exclamations.**

rhyfedda hardded yw y wlad, he marvels at the beauty of the country (lit. how beautiful the country is).

rhyfeddai hardded oedd y wlad, he marvelled at the beauty of the country (lit. how beautiful the country was).

REPORTED SPEECH.

371 Two methods may be employed in reporting :

A. The person reporting may quote words or views in their original independent form (Direct Speech, *Ōrātiō Recta*) :

e.g. dywedodd "nid oes neb yma," *he said "there is no one here."*

B. The person reporting may use the form of a clause or clauses (or clause-equivalents) dependent on a verb of *saying, thinking, etc.*, called the leading verb (Indirect Speech, *Ōrātiō Obliqua*) :

e.g. dywedodd nad oedd neb yno, *he said that there was no one there.*

DIRECT SPEECH.

Hwn yw yr ail o'r mesurau a ddygwyd yn mlaen i'r dyben o ledu rhan o Ffordd Haiarn Caer a Chaergybi er cyfarfod a'r drafnidiaeth gynnyddol. Ynddo ei hūn, y mae yr ymgymmeriad yn un o'r fāth fwyaf dymunol ; a phe cerid ef allan, er ystyriaeth briodol i fanteision masnachwyr Gogledd Cymru ac eiddo awdurdodau lleol y rhanbarthau hyny lle y mae ēangiad y llinell yn ymyraeth a hawliau cyhoeddus, nis gallai neb godi gwrthwynebiad iddo. Y mae yna amryw ddarpariaethau yn eisieu yn y mesur yn ei ffurf wreiddiol, er sicrhau hawliau y ffyrdd ac awdurdodau eraill yr effeithir arnynt. Y mae trafodaeth faith wedi cymeryd lle rhwng y cyrff hyn a chwmni y ffordd haiarn ; a chanlyniad hyny ydyw fod trefniadau llēd ffafriol wedi cael eu gwneyd."

INDIRECT SPEECH.

Dywedodd Mr. Herbert Lewis—mai hwn oedd yr ail o'r mesurau a ddygwyd yn mlaen i'r dyben o ledu rhan o ffordd Haiarn Caer a Chaergybi er cyfarfod a'r drafnidiaeth gynnyddol. Ynddo ei hūn, yr oedd yr ymgymmeriad yn un o'r fāth fwyaf dymunol ; a phe cerid ef allan, er ystyriaeth briodol i fanteision masnachwyr Gogledd Cymru ac eiddo awdurdodau lleol y rhanbarthau hyny lle yr oedd ēangiad y llinell yn ymyraeth a hawliau cyhoeddus, nis gallai neb godi gwrthwynebiad iddo. Yr oedd yna amryw ddarpariaethau yn eisieu yn y mesur yn ei ffurf wreiddiol, er sicrhau hawliau y ffyrdd, ac awdurdodau eraill yr effeithid arnynt. Yr oedd trafodaeth faith wedi cymeryd lle rhwng y cyrff hyn a chwmni y ffordd haiarn ; a chanlyniad hyny ydoedd fod trefniadau llēd ffafriol wedi cael eu gwneyd."

"Y Faner," Aug. 3, 1898.

"This is the second of the Bills which have been brought forward for the purpose of widening a part of the Chester and Holyhead Railway in order to meet the increasing traffic. In itself, the undertaking is one of the most welcome; and if it should be carried out with due regard to the interests of the business men of North Wales and those of the local authorities of those districts where the extension of the line interferes with public claims, no one could raise any objection to it. There are several provisions lacking in the Bill in its original form, in order to secure the claims of the roads and other authorities that are affected. A lengthy correspondence has taken place between these bodies and the railway company, and the result is that fairly favourable arrangements have been made."

Mr. Herbert Lewis said—that that was the second of the Bills which had been brought forward for the purpose of widening a part of the Chester and Holyhead Railway in order to meet the increasing traffic. In itself, the undertaking was one of the most welcome; and if it should be carried out with due regard to the interests of the business men of North Wales and those of the local authorities of those districts where the extension of the line interfered with public claims, no one could raise any objection to it. There were several provisions lacking in the Bill in its original form, in order to secure the claims of the roads and other authorities that were affected. A lengthy correspondence had taken place between these bodies and the railway company, and the result was that fairly favourable arrangements had been made.

RULES.—1. Simple Sentences and Principal Clauses of Direct Speech become Dependent Noun Clauses or Noun Phrases in Indirect Speech, according to the rules given in §§ 367–370.

2. Noun Phrases in place of Clauses of normal order are generally employed only in proposals and resolutions and in the opening sentences of speeches reported in Indirect Speech. Hence proposals and resolutions generally begin with the word *fōd* (the mutated form of the verb-noun *bōd*).

3. Change from Indirect to Direct Speech and *vice versa* is not uncommon.

4. As it is often difficult to render verbs in the Imperative Pl. 2 into Indirect Speech, owing to the ambiguity of the Past Imperfect Indicative Pl. 3, the sentence containing the Imperative is not unfrequently allowed to stand in Direct Speech with the word *meddai*, *said he*, used parenthetically to indicate that the sentence is a quotation.

PART II.—MEANINGS OF FORMS.

- 372 | Owing to the loss of the old case-endings and the fusion of the old conjugations of the verb into one, Welsh does not possess a large number of inflected forms like Greek and Latin. In many respects, therefore, the language is in a stage of development similar to that of English or French.
- 373 | There are in Welsh no cases distinguished by difference of case-ending; but the noun, by being placed after another noun, may express many of the meanings of the genitive; or, by being placed after the verb, may have the same force as the accusative of Greek and Latin.

A noun depending on another noun.

The following are some of the chief meanings of a noun dependent on another noun, like a genitive case in Greek or Latin.

- 374 | 1. The dependent noun may denote 'belonging to,' 'connected with':
- e.g. *palas y brenin, the king's palace (= Possessive Genitive).*
llais y wlād, the voice of the country.
delw Cesar, the image of Cesar.
gwyr Eryri, the men of Eryri.*
merched Mōn, the maidens of Anglesey.
- 375 | 2. The dependent noun may denote what might have been expressed as the Object of a verb (= Objective Genitive):
- e.g. *llofrudd y brenin, the murderer of the king (= he who murdered the king).*
ysgrifennwr y llyfr, the writer of the book.
chwiliwr y calonau, the searcher of hearts.

OBS.—When the dependent noun denotes the person who acts or feels, it corresponds to what is sometimes called by contrast the *Subjective Genitive*:
e.g. *cariad māb, a son's affection*; *trallod y wraig, the wife's distress.*

* The place to which a person belongs is expressed without a preposition only after plural nouns.

- 376 ~~125~~ The dependent-noun can express meanings (1) and (2) without a preposition only when the noun upon which it depends is definite in meaning.
- 377 3. The dependent noun may be used to define more closely a given occupation :
- e.g. gŏf aur, a goldsmith.
 săer măen, }
 săer cerrig, } a stone mason.
- 378 4. When the dependent noun has initial mutation after a feminine noun, its adjectival character is clearly seen ; such a noun may denote :—
- (a) age : e.g. geneth deirblwydd, a girl of three (years).
 (b) material : e.g. ysgubor gŏed, a wooden barn ; ty cerrig (pl. carreg, stone), a stone house ; wal gerrig, a stone wall.
 (c) price : e.g. canwyll ddimai, a half-penny candle ; llyfr swllt, a shilling book.
 (d) time : e.g. y seren ddydd, the day star ; y seren foreu, the morning star.

Occasionally, too, the dependent noun may be mutated in such expressions as y wal derfyn, the boundary wall (Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg).

- 379 NOTE.—The initial mutation after a feminine noun in these expressions is probably a survival from Mediæval Welsh, in which a dependent noun was often mutated after a feminine, but not after a masculine noun. The practice has survived in these uses of the dependent noun owing to their affinity to those of the adjective.

REMARKS.

- 380 1. After the adjective llawn, full, what was probably an old Partitive Genitive, has survived in the dependent noun in such expressions as : llawn cysur, full of comfort ; llawn maeth, full of nourishment ; also, with the dependent noun placed first, bwyd ddigon, plenty of food.
- 381 2. After uwch, higher, is, lower (now generally classed with prepositions), the dependent noun probably corresponded originally to the Genitive of Comparison of Greek and the Ablative of Comparison of Latin (Gk. Gram., § 411, Lat. Gram. § 359, 2. Obs. 1) :
- e.g. uwch y nefoedd, above the heavens, lit. higher than the heavens ;
 ychydig is angylion, a little lower than angels (E. Prys).
- 382 3. In such expressions as rhai gwŷr, some men ; y fâth ddŷn, such a man ; rhyw fachgen, some boy ; dim llē, no place ; pêth rheswm, some reason ; the words gwŷr, dŷn, bachgen, llē and rheswm were originally in the genitive case depending on rhai (see Accidence, § 154), rhyw, dim and pêth respectively. See Accidence, § 166.

- 383 4. In the following expressions the dependent noun is placed first:
- dacar lawr (=llawr daear), *the plain of earth.*
 - boreu wawr (=gwawr boreu), *the morning dawn.*
 - gwyneb pryd (=pryd gwyneb), *the form of the face.*
 - anguel loes (=loes angel), *the agony of death.*
 - Seion sail (=sail Seion), *the foundation of Zion.*
 - Caersalem byrth (=pyrth Caersalem), *the gates of Jerusalem.*
 - Salem dir (=tir Salem), *the land of Salem.*
 - Eden ardd (=gardd Eden), *the garden of Eden.*
 - bwyd ddigon (=digon o fwyd), *plenty of food.*
 - merched rai (=rhai merched), *some women.*
 - dynion lawer (=llawer o ddynion), *many men.*

(For the use of the prepositions *i* and *o* see §§ 389-404.)

A noun depending on a verb.

- 384 1. A noun placed after a transitive verb may be its Object:
- e.g. gorchfygodd y gelyn, he conquered the enemy.*
- 385 2. A noun placed after a verb may have an adverbial meaning, denoting time (either duration or point of time) or distance:
- e.g. arhosodd ddiwrnod, he stayed a day.*
cerddodd filltir, he walked a mile.
bydd yno drennydd, he will be there the day after to-morrow.
a edrych blygain bob pen awr | a welo'r wawr yn codi,
who looks at daybreak at every hour to see whether day is dawning. (E. Prys.)
- 386 Used predicatively with the verb *wyf, I am*, a noun may express age, measurement, or price:
- (a) age: *e.g. mae yn ugain (mlwydd) oed, he is twenty years of age.*
- (b) measurement: *e.g. mae yn ugain troedfedd o hyd, o lëd, etc., it is twenty feet in length, breadth, etc.*
- (c) price: *e.g. mae y llyfr yn bedair ceiniog a dimai, the book is four-pence half-penny.*

REMARKS.

- 387 In such an expression as *y mae hi yn drwm ei chlyw, she is hard of hearing*, where the adjective *trwm* agrees with *clyw*, we have probably a fusion of two constructions:
- (a) *y mae yn drwm ei chlyw, her hearing is hard (lit. heavy);*
 - (b) *y mae hi yn drom ei chlyw, she is hard as to her hearing;*
- clyw* in (b) corresponding to the accusative of nearer definition of Greek and Latin. See Gk. Gram. § 383; Lat. Gram. § 383.

PREPOSITIONS.

- 388 Owing to the change which Welsh has undergone from being a language with case-endings into one in which the relations of words to each other are mainly determined by their order and arrangement, the prepositions have risen into great prominence, as words which serve to express these relations with precision. Some of these prepositions have a more general meaning than others, and are used to enable the nouns which follow them to convey the meaning expressed in inflected languages by the genitive, dative and ablative cases. The two chief prepositions of this type in Welsh are *i*, *to*, *into*; *o*, *from*, *of*.

For the verbs which take fixed prepositions see §§ 329, 332.

The preposition *i*, *to*, *into*.

- 389 In addition to the use of the preposition *i* in its fundamental sense of *to*, *into*, it is employed to enable a noun or pronoun to express what would, as a rule, be expressed in Greek or Latin by the Dative Case.

- 390 (1) As a fixed preposition after certain verbs, mainly those of *giving* (see § 332a).

- 391 (2) In the case of personal pronouns only, to enable the pronoun to convey a meaning like that of the so-called Ethical Dative, *i.e.* to mark a person as interested in, or sympathizing with, what is said, as distinct from the action spoken of:

e.g. wrth fyned ymlaen, iti, fe ddaeth pethau yn well, *as we went on, you see, things got better.*

- 392 (3)* To denote possession. This is the regular method of expressing possession after nouns which are indefinite in meaning:
e.g. llyfr i'r bachgen yw hwn, *this is a book belonging to the boy.*
mae y gŵr yn gyfaill imi, *the man is a friend of mine.*
yn ūn pen i'r dref, *at one end of the town.*

- 393 (4)* To mark the doer of the action denoted by a verb-noun:
e.g. wedi i'r gŵr fyned, *after the man had gone.*

- 394 (5)* Occasionally after *aml*, *ambell* and *llawer*: †
e.g. aml i ddyn, *many a man*; llawer i greadur, *many a creature.*

- 395 (6) Before the verb-noun, to denote destination or purpose:
e.g. amser i hau, *time for sowing.*

aeth yno i weithio, *he went there to work, i.e. for the purpose of working.*

(For the limitations to the use *i* before the verb-noun in Welsh, see Cautions, §§ 330, 333).

* In (3), (4), and (5) *i* probably stands for *di*, *from*. See § 397.

† Now generally omitted after these words by good writers.

Compound prepositional expressions introduced by *i*, *to*, *into*.

- 396 *i* erbyn, *against* (used only with possessive adjectives):
e.g. rhuthrasant i'w herbyn, *they rushed against them.*
i blith, *i* fysg, *into the midst (of)*—used only with plural nouns and plural possessive adjectives:
e.g. dychwelodd *i* blith ei bobl, *he returned into the midst of his people.*
aeth i fysg y defaid, *he went into the midst of the sheep.*
i ganol, *into the midst (of)*—used with singular or plural:
e.g. *i* ganol yr afon, *into the midst of the river.*
i ganol y milwyr, *into the midst of the soldiers.*
 NOTE.—*i* blith generally implies closer proximity than *i* fysg.

REMARKS.

- 397 1. The preposition *i* stands for an older *di*, which, at one period in the history of the language, meant both *to* and *from*. *Di* meaning *to* is frequently found in the Book of Llandaf: *e.g.* dir pant *to the valley*. In the sense of *from*, *di* still survives in the double preposition *oddi* (= *o* + *ddi*), combined with *ar*, *on*, as in *oddiaf* (*o* + *ddi* + *ar*), *from on*; or with *tan*, *under*, in *odditan* (= *o* + *ddi* + *tan*), *from under*; or with *wrth*, *by, near*, in *oddiwrth* (= *o* + *ddi* + *wrth*), *from near*. In Mediæval Welsh, through the loss of initial *d*, *di*, *from*, had become *y* (= *i*), identical in form with the preposition *y* (= *i*), *to*, and still survived in the sense of *from* in such expressions as *y gan*, *from association with*; *y dan*, *from under*; *y ar*, *from on*. For the use of *i* in *llawer i* *ddyn*, etc., compare the partitive use of the French *de*. See Fr. Gram. P.G.S. § 397, 398.

2. In Mediæval Welsh the preposition *i*, *to, into*, was sometimes used where the preposition *at, to, towards*, would now be employed:

e.g. a pheri yr kigyd . . . dyuot idi a tharaw bonclust arnei beunydyd, *and ordered the butcher . . . to go to her and strike her a blow on the ear daily.* (Mabinogi of Branwen, Rhys and Evans, p. 34, l. 9. 10).

Also, not infrequently, in the sense of *yn, in*.

The Preposition *o, from*; with pronominal suffixes *ohon-*.

- 398 In addition to its regular meaning *from, from within*, the preposition *o* is mainly employed to enable a noun or pronoun to express what would, as a rule, be expressed in Greek or Latin by the Genitive Case:

(1) To introduce a noun of closer definition:

e.g. gŵr o sāer, *a carpenter*: lit. *a man (consisting) of a carpenter.*

gwr o athrylith *a man of genius.*

Sais o genedl, *an Englishman by race.*

clöff o'i ddeudroed, *lame in both feet.*

- 399 (2) Conversely, to introduce the more general of the two nouns thus brought together :
e.g. cawr o ddyn, *a giant of a man.*
 truan o ddyn, *a wretch of a man.*
 cywilydd o beth, *a shameful thing* : lit. *a shame of a thing.*
 Cf. Gk. *μέγα χήμα σὺς*, *a monster of a boar.*
- 400 (3) To express a meaning corresponding to the Partitive Genitive of Greek or Latin :
- (a) After interrogative pronouns and superlative adjectives :
e.g. pw y ohonoch ? *who of you ?*
 y talaf o'r bechgyn, *the tallest of the boys.*
- (b) After the following words denoting quantity :
- | | | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| cymmaint, | <i>as much</i> | llawer,* | <i>much, many</i> |
| cynnifer, | <i>as many</i> | lliaws, | <i>a number</i> |
| chwaneg (ychwaneg), | <i>more</i> | mŵy, | <i>more</i> |
| digon, | <i>sufficient</i> | nemmawr, | <i>but little</i> |
| dim, | <i>something</i> | pa faint, | <i>how much</i> |
| gormod, | <i>too much</i> | peth, | <i>some</i> |
| hyn, | <i>this much</i> | rhagor, | <i>more</i> |
| hynny, | <i>that much</i> | ychydig, | <i>a little</i> |
- Similarly after numerals ; *e.g.* ugain o ddynion, *twenty men.*
- 401 (4) After certain verbs (see § 332b) and the following adjectives :
- | | | | |
|---------------|-----------------------|-------------|--------------------|
| amddifad (o) | <i>destitute (of)</i> | llawn (o) | <i>full (of)</i> |
| annhebyg (o) | <i>unlikely (to)</i> | prin (o) | <i>short (of)</i> |
| balch (o) | <i>proud (of)</i> | rhwym (o) | <i>bound to</i> |
| cyfrannog (o) | <i>sharing (in)</i> | sicr (o) | <i>sure (to)</i> |
| euog (o) | <i>guilty (of)</i> | tebyg (o) | <i>likely (to)</i> |
| hoff (o) | <i>fond (of)</i> | teilwng (o) | <i>worthy (of)</i> |
- 402 (5) With an adjective, after one of the adjectives hynod, rhyfeddol, *wonderful* ; nodedig, *remarkable* ; dychrynlyd, *terrible* :
e.g. ty hynod o gysurus, *a remarkably comfortable house.*
 yr oedd yn ddychrynlyd o òer, *it was terribly cold.*
- 403 (6) In such expressions as o fachgen, *for a boy*, etc., used to qualify statements of praise :
e.g. siaradai Saesneg yn dda iawn o Gymro, *he spoke English very well for a Welshman.*
 o fachgen yr oedd ei waith yn rhagorol, *for a boy his work was excellent.*

* Also in Elis Wyn, y Bardd Cwsg, before singular nouns after myrdd and ancirif in the sense of *an indefinite amount*. This use is a survival from Mediæval Welsh.

Compound prepositional expressions introduced by *o*, *from*.

404

oddiallan *i*, *outside*: e.g. oddiallan i'r ty, *outside the house*.
 oddiar (= *o* + *ddi* + *ar*), *from off*: e.g. oddiar y llawr, *from off the floor*.

o dan, odditan (= *o* + *ddi* + *tan*), *beneath, under*: e.g. *o* dan ugain, *under twenty*; odditan y ddaer, *beneath the earth*.

oddiwrth (= *o* + *ddi* + *wrth*), *from, from near, opposed to at, towards*: e.g. ewch oddiwrth y ceffyl, *go away from the horse*; derbyniodd lythyr oddiwrth y brenin, *he received a letter from the king*.

o achos

o blegid } *on account (of)*: e.g. *o* achos y gwrës, *on account of the heat*; oblegid y drafferth, *on account of the trouble*; oherwydd yr hî, *on account of the weather*.

o blaid, *in favour of*: e.g. *o* blaid y llywodraeth, *in favour of the Government*.

o fewn, oddifewn *i*, *within*: e.g. *o* fewn y cylch, *within the circle*; *o* fewn ychydig, *within a little*; oddifewn i'r ty, *within the house*.

o fesur, *by* (used distributively): e.g. *o* tesur y dwsin, *by the dozen*.

o flaen, *before* (mostly of place): e.g. *o* flaen yr orsedd, *before the throne*; *o* flaen yr amser, *before the time*.

o gylch

o amgylch } *around, about*: Of place: e.g. *o* gylch y llê, *around the place*; *o* amgylch y ddinas, *around the city*; oddeutu 'r drws, *about the door*; *o* gwmpas y ty, *around the house*.

Of time: (oddeutu, *o* gylch, and *o* gwmpas only): e.g. bu yno oddeutu wythnos, *he was there about a week*; *o* gwmpas dwyawr, *about two hours*; *o* gylch tridiau, *about three days*.

o ôl, *behind*, used only with possessive adjectives: e.g. *o*'m hî, *behind me*.

o ran, *for the matter (of), as for*: e.g. *o* ran hynny, *for the matter of that*.

Other Prepositions.

- 405 **ag (a)**, *with*, mostly used to express the instrument: *e.g. torri a chylllell, to cut with a knife.*

Other meanings; *aeth ymaith a'r fwyall, he went away with the axe; mae wedi darfod a mi, he has done with me; crefodd arnaf a dagrau, he begged of me with tears.*

- 406 **am**, *around, for*, with pronominal suffixes **amdan**:-

Of place: *am ei arddwrn, around his wrist; am y pared, on the other side of the wall.*

Of time: *am yn hir, for a long time; am oriau, for hours; am dros flwyddyn, for over a year.*

Other meanings: *ni soniodd air am hynny, he did not say a word about that; am y trô, for the time; am y cyntaf, for the first; am reswm neillduol, for a certain reason; am ei fywyd, for his life; garw am arian, eager for money; am geiniog, for a penny; anfon am ddwfr, to send for water; nid awn yno am lawer, I should not go there for anything; am y testyn, mae yn ddigon hawdd, as for the subject, it is easy enough.*

amdan (= **am** + **dan**), *about*, is mainly used with nouns in the expressions *gwisgo amdan, to dress; tynu amdan, to undress.*

am ben, upon, at: e.g. chwerthin am ben, to laugh at.

- 407 **ar**, *on*, with pronominal suffixes **arn**:-

Of place: *ar y ffordd, on the road; ar farch, on horse-back; ar dir a môr, on land and sea.*

Of time: *ar y foment, at the moment; ar unwaith, at once; ar ddwywaith, in two attempts.*

Other meanings: *ar frys, quickly; ar yr ammod, on condition; ar y tir, on the ground (that); ar sail y dystiolaeth, on the basis of the evidence; ar ei oreu, with all his might; ar gyfartaledd, on an average; ar lög, at interest; ar werth, on sale; ar osod, to let; ar neges, on an errand; ar gynghor, by advice; ar gam, wrongly; ar yr iawn, in the right; ar ddechreu, at the beginning; ar ddiwedd, at the end (of); ar gyfyng gynghor, in perplexity; ar y plwyf, on the parish; mae arno arian, he owes money. Occasionally after *mâth*, *kind: e.g. math ar liw, a kind of colour.**

407b

In certain compound prepositional expressions :—

ar ben, *upon* : Of place : ar ben y ty, *on top of the house.*

Of time : ar ben pob awr, *at the end of every hour.*

Other meanings : ac ar ben y cwbl, *dechreuodd wlawio, and, on top of it all, it began to rain* ; mae ar ben ei ddigon, *he has ample means, lit. he is at the end of his sufficiency.*

ar draws, *across* : Of place : ar draws y fford, *across the road* ; ar draws y llê, *all over the place.*

Other meanings : rhedodd y cerbyd ar ei draws, *the car ran over him* ; peidiwch a siarad ar draws y dyn, *do not interrupt the man.*

ar gyfer, *opposite* : Of place : ar gyfer y ty, *opposite the house.*

Of time : ar gyfer yr adeg, *for, (= to meet) the occasion* ; ar gyfer y gauaf, *for the winter.*

ar gyfyl, *near* : mainly used in negative sentences : Of place : ni ddaeth ar gyfyl y llê, *he did not come near the place.*

ar hyd, *over* : Of place : ar hyd y ddinas, *over the city.*

Of time : ar hyd y nôs, *all night long.*

ar ôl, *after* : Of place : aeth ar ôl ei feistr, *he went after his master.*

Of time : ar ôl yr amser, *after the time.*

Other meanings : eich gardd chwi yw y fwyaf ar ôl un John, *your garden is the largest after John's.*

ar warthaf, *down upon* : e.g. ar warthaf y gelyn, *upon the enemy.*

at, *to, towards* (opposed to oddiwrth, *from by*) :

408

Of place : âf at y ty, *I shall go to the house* ; y nesaf at yr heol, *the next to the street.*

Of time : at y gauaf, *towards winter* ; at y nôs, *towards night* ; at yr adeg, *to the right time.*

Other meanings : aeth at ei waith, *he went to his work* ; mae at ei ddewis, *at ei ryddid, he is free to choose* ; at eich gwasanaeth, *at your service* ; chwaeth at, *taste for* ; at ein chwaeth, *to our taste* ; at bwy yr ydych yn cyfeirio ? *to whom do you refer* ? anfonaf lythyr atoch, *I shall send you a letter* ; at yr anwyd, *for a cold* ; cymeraf hynny at fy ystyriaeth, *I shall take that into consideration.*

409 *cyn, before*:—Of time: *cyn dydd, before daybreak*; *cyn cinio, before dinner*.

410 *dan (tan), under, until*:

Of place: *dan y tŷ, under the roof*; *dan y ddaear, under the earth*.

Of time: *dan y nŷs, until night*; *dan yfory, until to-morrow*.

Other meanings: *dan gerydd, under a rebuke*; *dan warth, in disgrace*; *dan glefyd, in sickness*; *mae dan anwyd, he is suffering from a cold, lit. he is under a cold*; *dan orfodaeth, under compulsion*; *dan amod, on condition*; *dan rwymedigaeth, under an obligation*; *dan esgus, with the excuse*.

(For *dan* in *mdan*, *o dan* and *odditan* see §§ 406, 404).

411 *dros (tros), over*:

Of place: *gwaeddodd dros y llê, he shouted all over the place*; *dros y ffordd, over the way*.

Of time: *dros y diwrnod, for the day*; *dros y trŷ, for once*.

Other meanings: *dros fesur, beyond measure*; *dros gant, over a hundred*; *ymladdant dros eu gwlad, dros ryddid, they fight for their country, for freedom*.

drwy (trwy), through:

412 Of place: *drwy Ffrainc, through France*; *drwy y ty, through the house*.

Of time: *drwy'r flwyddyn, throughout the year*.

413 *efo, with*, sometimes used for *gyda*. See *gyda*. This preposition, regularly used in the spoken Welsh of N. Wales to express *with*, was not originally a preposition but a personal pronoun S. 3, and has developed into a preposition through a mistake. Its original use was in such expressions as *éfo a mi, he and I*, or *he with me*, which became contracted into *éfo mi*, and *éfo* (also pronounced *hefo*) was taken to mean *with*, and used accordingly.

414 *er, since*:—Of time: *er y boreu, since the morning*; *er yn blentyn, since childhood*.

*ers (=er ys), since**:—Of time: *er ys oriau, for hours*; *er ys talm, since long ago*.

415 *er, in spite (of)*:—Adversative: *er hynny, in spite of that*; *er ei gystudd, in spite of his illness*.

**ers, er ys*, is employed where *since* implies continuance: *ys* is probably the old form S. 3. Pres. Indic. of *wyf*, meaning *it is* (Irish 'is'): hence *er ys oriau* meant originally *since it is hours*, i.e. *since hours have elapsed*.

er gwaethaf, lit. *in spite of the worst*: er gwaethaf y tywydd, *in spite of the weather*.

416 er, *for the sake of*: er sicrwydd, *for the sake of certainty*;
er mantais, *for the sake of an advantage*.

er mwyn, *for the sake (of)*: er mwyn tawelwch, *for the sake of peace*.

417 er, *for, to (implying result)*: bu y peth er clôd, er cysur iddo, *the thing was to his credit, to his comfort*; er ei syndod, *to his surprise*.

418 erbyn, *by*:—Of time: erbyn tri o'r glôch, *by three o'clock*.

419 gan, *with, by*:

Of place * (rare in Modern Literary Welsh): fel miaren gan lawr, *like a briar along the ground* (Elis Wyn); a'u trwynau gan lawr, *with their noses on the ground* (Elis Wyn).

Of time (obsolete): gan wawr, *with the dawn* (Gododin). To denote the agent, in passive constructions: gwelwyd ef gan fachgen, *he was seen by a boy*.

With the meaning *from*, where gan stands for the older y gan, *from association with*:—e.g. cafodd gan y dyn fyned, *he got the man to go*, lit. *he got from the man a going*; dysgodd gan ei athraw, *he learnt from his master*; cafodd lyfr gan ei dād, *he got a book from his father*.

PHRASES: gan mwyaf, *for the most part*; gan hynny, *therefore*; gan fyned, *going*, (see §§ 547, 556), dā gennyf glywed, *I am glad to hear*. gan is largely employed in the expression mae gan, lit. *there is with*, denoting possession: e.g. mae gan y dyn arian, *the man has money*.

NOTE.—The use of gan by some writers in such expressions as yr apostol gan Bedr, *the apostle Peter*, is by no means elegant and should be avoided.

420 ger, *close by*:

Of place: ger y llif, *near the flood*; ger y tân, *near the fire*. ger llaw, *close by*, lit. *near the hand (of)*:

Of place: ger llaw y drws, *near the door*.

ger bron, *before*, lit. *before the breast (of)*:

Of place: ger bron y brenin, *before the king*.

421 gerfydd, *by*, in such expressions as dal gerfydd ei draed, *to hold by his feet*.

* In the Dimetian dialect of S. Wales this use of gan is not uncommon.

- 422 **gydag** (**gyda**), *with* (in N. Wales, the corresponding prep. *efo* is generally employed):

Of place: *gyda glan yr afon, along the bank of the river.*

Of time: *gyda'r wawr, with the dawn; gyda'r nŏs, at nightfall.*

Other meanings: *aeth gydag ef, he went with (i.e. accompanied by) him; gyda'ch cennad, by your leave; gyda llaw, by the way; gyda hynny, in addition to that; gyda brys, with speed; gyda'r cyntaf, with the first; gyda blŏedd, with a shout; gyda gwēn, with a smile; gyda bendith, with a blessing; gyda phŏb parch, with all respect; gyda thrafferth, with difficulty.*

- 423 **gogyfer ag** (**a**), *opposite to*: Of place: *gogyfer a'r drws, opposite the door.*

gyferbyn ag (**a**), *opposite to*: Of place: *gyferbyn a'r llys, opposite the court.*

gyfeiryd ag (**a**), *opposite to* (rare): Of place: *gyfeiryd a hyn, yr oedd seler fawr, opposite to this there was a large cellar.*
Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg.

- 424 **heb**, *without* (Med. Welsh, *past*):—*heb lyfr, without a book; heb achos, without a cause.*

heb law, *besides*:—*heb law hynny, besides that; heb law fi,* besides myself.*

heb waethaf (**i**), *in spite of* (rare): *heb waethaf Holland, in spite of Holland.* Elis Wyn.

- 425 **heibio** (**i**), *past*:—*heibio 'r tŷ, past the house; heibio i mi, past me*

- 426 **hŷd**, *along, until*:

Of place: *daeth adref hŷd y ffordd, he came home along the road.* In this sense *ar hŷd* (see § 407*) is mostly used.

Of time: *hyd drannoeth, until the following day; hyd angu, till death.*

hyd at, *as far as*: *hyd at y tŷ, as far as the house; hyd at y diwedd, as far as the end.*

hyd i, *as far as*, implying 'entrance into': *hyd i'r ddinas, as far as the city.*

* Note that *heb law* does not require the preposition *i*, *to*, after it before pronouns.

427 *is, below, beneath :*

Of place: *is y nefoedd, beneath the heavens ; is y don, beneath the wave.*

is law, beneath : Of place : *is law y ty, below the house.*

Other meanings : *mae y gwās is law ei feistr, the servant is below his master ; is law sylw, beneath one's notice.*

428 *mewn, in :*

Of place : *mewn ystafell, in a room ; mewn cerbyd, in a car.*

Of time : *mewn awr, in an hour ; mewn blwyddyn, in a year.*

Other meanings : *mewn ofn, in fear ; mewn perygl, in danger ; mewn angen, in need.* See §§ 437, 438.

429 *rhag, from, implying the avoidance of some danger or discomfort :*
e.g. cadw rhag y tân, to keep from the fire ; achub rhag angeu, to save from death.

PHRASE : *rhag llaw, forthwith ; rhag ofn, from fear.*

430 *rhwng, between :*

Of place : *rhwng Rhyl a Bangor, between Rhyl and Bangor.*

Of time : *rhwng nŵs a boreu, between night and morning.*

Other meanings : *rhanasant yr arian rhyngddynt, they divided the money between them ; rhyngom, ni a wnawn yn rhagorol, between us, we shall do excellently ; rhyngddynt hwy a'r pëth, between them and the matter.*

431 *tuag (tua), about, towards.* This preposition is a compound of *tū, side, and ag, with :*

Of place : *tua'r ty, about the house ; tua'r drëf, towards the town.*

Of time : *tua naw o'r glöch, about nine o'clock ; tua thrï, about three.*

Other meanings : *tua chant, about a hundred ; tua phum ceiniog, about fivepence ; tua milldir, about a mile.*

tuagat, toward, towards : daeth tuagatom, he came towards us ; rhoisant rywbeth tuagat y treuliau, they gave something towards the expenses.

432 *uwch, above* *uwch y don, above the wave ; uwch y byd, above the world.*

goruwch, above, is more commonly used to express these meanings than the simple uwch.

uwch ben, above : uwch ben y ty, above the house.

uwch law, above : uwch law y cyfan, above all.

433 wedi, after :

Of time : wedi nōs, *after nightfall* ; wedi 'r frwydr, *after the battle*.

Of succession : y talaf wedi John, *the tallest after John*.

434 wrth, by, to :

Of place : safai wrth y ty, *he stood by the house*.

After verbs of 'binding' : cadwyno wrth y mūr, *to chain to the wall*.

Similarly—rhwym wrth y mūr, *bound to the wall*.

After verbs of speaking : llefaru wrth y dorf, *to speak to the multitude*.

Other meanings : cerdded wrth ei bwysau, *to walk at his leisure* ; rhodio wrth ei ffon, *to walk by the help of his stick* ; gweithio wrth reol, *to work by rule* ; rhoddi wrth fesur, *to give by measure* ; gwerthu wrth y pwys, *to sell by the pound* ; wrth raid, *if need be* ; wrth ei swydd, *in virtue of his office* ; wrthyf fi a'm bāth, *compared with me and my sort*.

435 yn, in :

Of place : yn y wlād, *in the country* ; yng nghysgod craig, *in the shelter of a rock* ; ym mhōb man, *in every place* ; ym mhā lē, *in what place* ; yn ei holl ardal, *in his whole district*.

Of time : yn y flwyddyn, *in the year* ; ym mis Chwefror, *in February*.

Other meanings : yn angeu, *in death* ; yn Gymraeg, *in Welsh* ; ym mhawb, *in every one*.

yn is the first element of the following compound prepositional

436 expressions :

yn erbyn, *against* : yn erbyn y gelyn, *against the enemy*.

yng ngŵydd, *in the presence (of)* : yng ngwydd tystion, *in the presence of witnesses*.

yng nghylch, *about* : yng nghylch ugain, *about twenty* ; yng nghylch tridiau, *about three days*.

ym mhen, *at the end (of)* : ym mhen pythefnos, *at the end of a fortnight* ; ym mhen y ffordd, *at the end of the road*.

i.e. *this end*, hence this expression generally means *at the beginning of the road*.

yng nghanol } *in the midst of, among* : yng nghanol yr afon, *in the*
ym mhlith } *midst of the river* ; ym mhlith y tlodion, *among*
ym mŷsg } *the poor* ; ymysg y Saeson, *among the English*.

ym mhlith and ym mŷsg are used only with plural nouns or plural possessive adjectives.

yn ôl, *after* (rare in Modern Welsh) : —yn ôl hynny, *after that*.

Distinctions between *yn* and *mewn*.

- 437 *yn*, like Fr. *dans*, is generally employed before words defined by means of the definite article or otherwise: *mewn*, like Fr. *en*, is generally employed before words not so defined:

e.g. yn y ty, in the house; mewn ty, in a house.

- 438 Proper names of places, and expressions such as *angu*, *death*, *tragwyddoldeb*, *eternity*, as well as *pŵb*, *every*, *pawb*, *every one*, *y hwn*, *y neb*, *y sawl*, *who*, *which* (relative), *pwy*, *who?*, *pâ*, *what?*, *hŏll*, *whole*, and all pronominal suffixes take *yn*:

e.g. ynddynt, in them; yn yr holl wlad, in the whole country.

- 439 NOTE.—In the expressions *yn tân*, *in (or into) the fire*, *yn ty*, *in the house*, the article is omitted. Note also the initial mutation in the expression *yn Gymraeg* (not *yng Nghymraeg*), *in Welsh*.

Distinctions between prepositions meaning *from*.

- 440 *o*, *from*, means *from within*: *e.g. o'r ty, from (i.e. from within) the house*, as opposed to *i*, *into*.

- 441 *oddiwrth*, *from near*, means from a position of close proximity to: *e.g. oddiwrth y ty, from (i.e. from the outside of) the house*, as opposed to *at*, *towards*. Verbs of 'separating' mostly take *oddiwrth*.

- 442 *rhag*, *from before*, implies the avoidance of some danger or discomfort: *e.g. cadw rhag y gwres, to keep from the heat*.

- 443 *gan*, *from association with*, after verbs of 'receiving' etc. implies immediate and direct transmission: *e.g. câf lyfr gan fy athraw, I shall get a book from my teacher*.

- 444 *oddiwrth*, *from near*, after verbs of 'receiving' etc. generally calls attention to the transmission of the object in question through intermediaries: *e.g. câf lyfr oddiwrth fy athraw, I shall get a book from my teacher (i.e. transmitted through the agency of some other person)*.

REMARKS.

The following old prepositional forms deserve notice:

- 445 (1) *behet*, *bet*, *up to*, found in the Book of Llandaff, and even in William Lleyl in the mutated form *fed*.
- 446 (2) *cant*, *with*, of which *gan* (for *gant*) is the mutated form. *cant* still survives as a prefix in *canfu*, *he beheld*, and *canmolaf*, *I praise*. The existence of this form explains the initial mutation in such expressions as a *chando*, *and with him*. *Cant* is probably cognate with Gk. *kard*.
- 447 (3) *cŷd*, *with*, of which *gyd* in *gyda* is the mutated form. This preposition in the forms *cyf*-, *cy*-, *cyd*-, *cys*- is a common prefix, having the force of the Gk. *σύν*, *with*, Lat. *cum*, con-, *with*.
- 448 (4) *go* (for *guo*-, *under*, = Gaulish *vo*-, Irish *fo*, Gk. *ὑπό* *), is now used as a prefix and as an adverb, to express *rather*: *e.g. go-drwm, rather heavy*; *go gynnes, rather warm*. It is also found as a prefix in many nouns and verbs.

- 449 (5) gor (for guor-, *over*, = Gaulish vor-, ver-, Irish for, Gk. *ὑπέρ**), is now used as a prefix to express *exceedingly*: e.g. gorddwfn, *exceedingly deep*. gor is found as a prefix in many Welsh words.
- 450 (6) han, *from*, is the first element in the word han-fod, *essence*. In the form hon it is the second element in the forms ohonof, etc., *from me*, etc.
- 451 (7) py, to (= O. Irish co, *up to*) occurs in the expression o ben hwy gilydd, for o ben by 'i gilydd, *from one end to the other*, lit. *from one end to its fellow*.
- 452 (8) tra, *over*, occurs in the expression ben dra-mwnwgl, *head over heels*; lit. *head over neck*. tra is now used as a prefix and as an adverb meaning *exceedingly*.

SUPPLEMENT TO PREPOSITIONS.

Expressions of Place.

- 453 yr oeddwn yn Llundain, *I was in London*.
 " " " y ty " " *the house*.
 euthum o Llundain, *I went from London*.
 " o'r ty " " *the house*.
 " oddiwrth y ty " " " *"*.
 " i Lundain, " *to London*.
 " i'r ty " *into the house*.
 " at y ty " *towards the house*.

RULE:—"Place where," "place whence," and "place whither" are expressed as in English by using prepositions.

- 454 NOTE:—gartref, *home* (mutated form of cartref †) is used without a preposition.

Expressions of Space.

- 455 cerddodd bymtheng milldir, *he walked fifteen miles*.
 mae Bangor driugain milldir o Gaerlleon, *Bangor is sixty miles from Chester*.

RULE:—Distance is expressed by a noun without a preposition with verbs of motion and of rest.

- 456 NOTE:—"How long," "how high," "how broad" are expressed by using the nouns hyd, *length*, uchder, *height*, llêd, *breadth*, respectively, preceded by the preposition o, *from*, of:
 e.g. mae y ffordd yn ddeng milldir o hyd, *the road is ten miles long*.

* Original p of Indo-European has disappeared in the Celtic languages.

† cartref, *home* is probably from cār, *relative* and trêf, *settlement, homestead*, and would thus mean originally the common settlement of relatives under the Old Welsh System of land tenure.

Expressions of Time.

TIME WHEN.

- 457 a) yn Rhagfyr y cychwynodd, *it was in December that he started.*
 (b) fe'm ganwyd ar y pummed o Awst yn y flwyddyn 18—, *I was born on the 5th of August in the year 18—.*
 (c) bydd y cyfarfod yn dechreu am saith o'r glöch, *the meeting will begin at seven o'clock.*
 (d) bu yma boreu heddyw, *he was here this morning.*
 daw adref y flwyddyn nesaf, *he will come home next year.*
 aeth yno y Nadolig, *he went there at Christmas.*

RULE:—"Time when" is expressed by using the preposition *yn, in*, to mark the year or the month; *ar, on*, to mark the day; *am, for*, to mark the hour. In other cases the noun is employed either without a preposition or with the preposition *yn, in*.

TIME HOW LONG.

- 458 arhosodd yn Llundain ddyddiau lawer (or am ddyddiau lawer), *he stayed in London many days.*
 bu yno bum wythnos (or am bum wythnos), *she was there for five weeks.*

RULE:—"Time how long" is expressed either by using a noun preceded by the preposition *am, for*, or without a preposition.

- 459 NOTE:—"How old" is expressed by a Predicate-noun followed immediately by the noun *oed, age* (possibly with the omission of *o, from, of, before oed*):

e.g. mae y plentyn yn bum mlwydd oed, the child is five years of age. (Note that *blwydd* is the form employed here).

TIME WITHIN WHICH.

ychedig ddyddiau cyn y frwydr, *a few days before the battle.*
 rhyw dridiau wedi (or ar ôl) y Pâsg, *some three years after Easter.*

ddeng mlynedd (or ym mhen deng mlynedd) wedi hynny, *ten years after.*

ychedig yn gynt, *a little sooner.*

gryn amser ar ol hynny, *a considerable time after that.*

- 460 RULE:—"Time how long before or after" is generally expressed by means of a noun without a preposition.
 (For a list of adverbs of time see § 598.)

MEANINGS OF THE VOICES.

- 461 Owing to the peculiar history of the Passive Voice in Welsh (see *Accidence*, § 178), it is not always easy to say, in sentences with normal order, whether or not the verb has completely passed over into the Passive Voice; in other words, whether or not the sense of the original construction still survives in our grammatical consciousness. In sentences of inverted order, however, if the Subject precedes the verb, the verb then seems to be viewed as distinctly passive:

e.g. gwelwyd dyn, *a man was seen* (originally, *there was seeing as to a man*).

dyn a welwyd, '*a man was seen.*'

- 462 The Active voice often has an intransitive meaning, even in the case of verbs which are capable of taking an Object:

e.g. cyfodaf, *I rise*, as well as *I raise*.

dysgaf, *I learn*, „ „ *I teach*.

The Substitute for a Middle Voice.

- 463 In the case of many verbs a reflexive form, equivalent in meaning to the 'Middle Voice' of Greek, can be made by prefixing the preposition *ym** (another form of *am*, *around*):

e.g. golchaf, *I wash*; *ym-olchaf*, *I wash myself*.

- 464 Sometimes, verbs of this formation are not used in a direct reflexive sense, but, by means of the prefix in question, suggest a relation of the action to its agent, as involving his interest, etc.:

e.g. gwelaf, *I see*; *ymwelaf*, *I visit* (= *I see for myself*).

- 465 In the case of some verbs, *ym* appears to have a reciprocal force:

e.g. ymladdwn, *we fight* (lit. *we strike † one another*).

[Cf. French *se battre*, *to fight*.]

pan el lladron i ymgyhuddo, y caiff cywiriaid eu da, *when thieves proceed to accuse one another, honest men come by their own.*
Welsh Proverb.

- 466 NOTE:—*ym* and *am* (Irish *imm*), are cognate with Latin *ambi*-, and Greek *ἀμφι*, *around* [for original *ambhi*-].

* The corresponding Irish preposition *imm* is also similarly used.

† *laddaf*, now = *I kill*, meant originally *I strike*.

MEANINGS OF THE TENSES.

467 Some of the Welsh tense-forms have pairs of meanings as follows :

dysgaf, *I learn* (PRESENT), and *I shall learn* (FUTURE);
 dysgwn, *I was learning* (PAST IMPERFECT), and *I should learn*
 (SECONDARY FUTURE);
 dysgaswn, *I had learnt* (PLUPERFECT), and *I should have learnt*
 (SECONDARY FUT. PERF.);
 dysgais, *I learnt* (AORIST), and *I have learnt* (PERFECT).

468 From these forms it will be seen that the peculiarity whereby the Present tense-form has both a present and a future meaning is not confined to this tense-form alone, but shows itself also in the case of the tense-forms of the Past Imperfect and the Pluperfect.

469 The Past Imperfect, when used as a Secondary Future, corresponds in meaning to the Secondary Future of French (the so-called 'Conditionnel Présent'), while the Pluperfect, when used as a Secondary Future Perfect, corresponds to the Secondary Future Perfect of French (the so-called 'Conditionnel Passé'). Welsh differs from French in having, in nearly all verbs, only one form for the Present and the Future; only one form for the Past Imperfect and the Secondary Future; and only one for the Pluperfect and the Secondary Future Perfect.

470 In the case of *wyf, I am*, the pairs of tense-forms are as follows :
 byddaf, *I am wont to be* (PRES. HABITUAL), and *I shall be* (FUT.);
 byddwn, *I was wont to be* (PAST IMPERF. HABIT.), and *I should be*
 (SEC. FUT.);
 buaswn, *I had been* (PLUPERFECT), and *I should have been* (SEC.
 FUT. PERF.);
 bŷm, *I was* (AORIST), and *I have been* (PERFECT).

471 N.B.—Note that the tense-forms which have these pairs of meanings are all derived from the root *bheu* [Lat. *fu-i*, *I have been*; Gk. *φῦ-vai*, *to grow*].

Tenses of the Indicative.

The Present.

- 472 The Present (Simple Form) has two chief meanings :—
 (A) as a true Present ;
 (B) as a Future :
e.g. gwelaf, I see or I shall see.
- 473 (A) As a true Present, the simple form of this tense has two chief uses :
 (1) In the case of verbs denoting a state, to mark the state as *now existing* :
e.g. wyf, I am ; gallaf, I can, I am able.
 474 So with verbs which denote states of mind rather than actions :
e.g. gwelaf, I see ; ystyriaf, I consider ; teimlaf, I feel.
 475 The corresponding meaning of verbs which denote an action is expressed by the compound form of the Present, which marks the action as *now going on* :
e.g. yr wyf yn ysgrifenu, I am writing (now), lit. I am in writing, I am a-writing.
y mae yn rhedeg, he is running (now).
yr wyt yn myned, thou art going, thou art a-going.
- 476 (2) In the case of verbs denoting an action and those denoting a state, to mark the action or the state, as *recurring habitually* in the present :
e.g. ysgrifena'r awdwr hwn bōb amser yn ddā, this author always writes well.
teimlant ambell waith yn boeth, they sometimes feel hot.
- 477 Very frequently this habitual meaning, whether of verbs denoting an action or a state, is expressed by using the compound form with *byddaf, I am habitually* :
e.g. byddaf yn myned, I am in the habit of going, lit. I am habitually in going (a-going).
byddaf yn teimlo, I am in the habit of feeling.
- 478 As a true Present, the simple form of this tense may also denote what is true at all times (including the present) :
e.g. y plentyn yw tād y dyn, the child is father to the man.
bid lawen iach, the healthy man is joyous. (Welsh Proverb.)*
dihunid a brydero, he that is anxious is sleepless. „
- 479 In vivid narration the Present may be used of past events instead of the Aorist : in this use the Present is called Historical :
e.g. yna gwelir ef yn rhedeg, then he is seen running.

* A Pres. Indic. 3rd S. ending in -id, is sometimes found with this meaning, especially in old proverbs.

- 480 (B) As a Future, the Present tense-form is employed like the Future of Greek and Latin :

(1) To mark an action as about to occur, or a state as about to exist, hereafter :

e.g. ysgrifennaf, *I shall write*; byddaf yn ddedwydd, *I shall be happy*.

- 481 In the case of verbs of action the Future meaning, especially in Principal Clauses, is often expressed by means of gwnâf, *I shall make*, followed by a verb-noun; e.g. gwnâf fynd, *I shall go*, lit. *I shall make a going*; similarly in the case of verbs of perceiving and thinking, the Future is generally expressed by cāf, *I shall obtain*, followed by a verb-noun: e.g. cāf weled, *I shall see*; caf wybod, *I shall know*.

I shall be writing, etc. is expressed by byddaf yn ysgrifenu, etc.

- 482** NOTE.—The use of gwnāf to express the Future meaning is very common in sentences of inverted order, when the verb-noun precedes the verb which governs it : e.g. myned a wnāf, *I shall go*.

- 483 (2) To imply command or promise (in the 2nd or 3rd person, where English has *shall*, not *will*):

e.g. *cei fyned, you shall go.*

ni chei fyned, *you shall not go.*

Note on the Present Indic. of *w̄yf*, 3rd pers. sing. (pers.)

- 484** The five forms *mae*, *yw*, *ydyw*, *oes* and *sŷdd* which correspond to the English *is* are distinguished in use as follows :

I. In the sentence of normal order (see §§ 303, 304) :—

mae is used in affirmative clauses :

e.g. mae John yn y tŷ, *John is in the house.*

- 485 | **yw (ydyw)** is used in negative clauses when the Subject is definite :

- | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|--------------|
| 486 | 008 | " | " | " | " | " | " | indefinite : |
|-----|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|--------------|

e.g. nid yw y dŷn yn y tŷ, *the man is not in the house.*

nid oes ddŷn yn y tŷ, *there is no man in the house.*

- 487** Similarly in interrogative sentences introduced by *a*, and also after *os*, *if*, in the subordinate clauses of conditional sentences :

e.g. a yw y dyn gartref? *is the man at home?*

a oes rhywun gartref? *is someone at home?*

os yw y dyn gartref, *if the man is at home.*

os oes rhywun gartref, *if someone is at home.*

The difference between yw and ydyw is mainly one of euphony, but ydyw is used in preference to yw in answers.

- 488 2. In the sentence of inverted order (see § 305) :—

sydd is used when the Subject precedes the verb in *affirmative* sentences, *affirmative* relative clauses and *affirmative* interrogative sentences and clauses introduced by pwy? *who?*; pā? *what?*; pa bēth? (or bēth?) *what thing?*

e.g. John sydd yn canu, *it is John that is singing.*

yr hwn sydd yn canu, *he who is singing.*

pŵy sydd yn canu? *who is singing?*

(The reasons for the use of *s̄ydd* in these cases are given in the Appendix.)

489 yw (ydyw) is employed :—

(a) wherever the verb of the sentence or clause is negated :

e.g. pwy nid yw yn gorfoleddu? *who does not rejoice?*

(b) whenever the Predicate-noun, Predicate-adjective or Predicate-pronoun is placed first :

e.g. dyn yw, *he is a man* ; dâ yw, *he is good* ; myfi yw, *it is I*.

Similarly in questions like—pwy yw y dyn? *who is the man?* and relative clauses like—yr hwn yw y dyn (where y dyn is definite), pwy and yr hwn are treated as Predicate-pronouns.

490 mae is employed where the verb-noun of a compound tense is placed first. In these cases yn is generally omitted :

e.g. myned y mae, *he is going*, for mae yn myned.

OBS. The plural form corresponding to mae is maent; the plural forms corresponding to yw (ydyw) are ynt (ydynt).

The Past Imperfect.

491 The Past Imperfect (Simple Form) has two chief meanings :

(A) as a true Present of the past ;

(B) as a Secondary Future (Future of the past) :

e.g. gwelwn, *I was seeing*, or *I should see*.

492 Both of these meanings are meanings of the Present *transferred to past time*.

493 As a true present of the past the Past Imperfect is employed, like the Past Imperfect of Greek and Latin—

(1) To mark an action as *going on in the past* or a state as *then existing* :

e.g. ysgrifennwn, *I was writing* (then).

rhedwn, *I was running* „

awn, *I was going* „

oeddwn, *I was* „

gallwn, *I was able* „

teimlwn, *I felt* „

494 N.B.—The use of the simple form of the Past Imperfect is not subject to the same limitations as that of the simple form of the Present ; see §§ 473-475.

495 In this sense the Past Imperfect is often used in the description of scenery and localities :

e.g. arweiniai y llwybr i'r mynydd, *the path led to the mountain.*

496 In the case of wyf, *I am*, the form oeddwn, *I was*, has this meaning ; and it is regularly used to make a compound form of the Past Imperfect Continuous :

e.g. yr oeddwn yn rhedeg, *I was running*.

yr oeddwn yn teimlo, *I was feeling*.

- 497 (2) To mark an action or a state as *recurring habitually* in the past :

e.g. ysgrifennai yr awdwr hwn bob amser yn ddā, *this writer always used to write well.*

teimlent ambell waith yn bōeth, *they sometimes felt hot.*

- 498 Very frequently this habitual meaning is expressed by using the compound form with *byddwn*, *I was habitually* :

e.g. byddwn yn myned, *I used to go.*

byddwn yn teimlo, *I used to feel.*

- 499 (3) The Past Imperfect was the old Indo-European narrative tense, and is so used in some expressions in Welsh, as it also is occasionally in Attic Greek, and, to a much larger extent, in Homer :

e.g. wedi myned i mewn, gwelem y dyn ar ei eistedd, *after going in, we saw the man sitting.*

- 500 This use of the Past Imperfect is especially common in the case of the verbs *gwelaf*, *I see*, *clywaf*, *I hear*, and verbs of kindred meaning :

e.g. ynghanol hyn, clywn rydwst tu a phen isa 'r stryd, *in the midst of this, I heard an uproar at the lower end of the street.*
Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg.

- 501 (B) As a Secondary Future, the Past Imperfect is used :

(1) To describe a future action or state from the point of view of the past :

e.g. gwyddai yr ysgrifennwn, *he knew that I should write ;*

gwyddai y teimlwn, *he knew that I should feel ;*

corresponding in past time to—

gŵyr yr ysgrifennaf, *he knows that I shall write* } in present
gŵyr y teimlaf, *he knows that I shall feel* } time.

- 502 (2) In the Principal * Clause of a Conditional Sentence that speaks of what *would be* (§ 355) :

awn yno, pe byddai eisieu, *I should go there, if there were need.*

(For these uses of the Secondary Future in French, cf. Fr. Gram. §§ 485, 486.)

- 503 OBS. 1.—When this meaning is expressed by means of a Compound Tense, it should be noted that *buaswn*, the Pluperfect or Secondary Future Perfect form of *wyl*, is generally employed :

e.g. buaswn (not byddwn) yn myned yno, pe byddai eisieu, *I should go there, if there were need.*

* For the Past Imperfect in the Subordinate Clause of a Conditional Sentence see § 526.

- 504 OBS. 2.—This tendency to use the Pluperfect form for the Secondary Future seems to have sprung from a desire to avoid the ambiguity that would arise if *byddwn* were employed, inasmuch as *byddwn yn myned* might mean *I used to go*. In present day Welsh the tendency to use the Pluperfect form as a Secondary Future and as a Past Imperfect Subjunctive is very marked. Similarly in Spanish, what was historically a Pluperfect Indicative has now become a by-form of the Past Subjunctive. See Span. Gram. P.G.S. § 503.
- 505 OBS. 3.—In the case of *gwelaf*, *I see*, *clywaf*, *I hear*, *gwn*, *I know*, this meaning is often expressed by means of the Past Imperfect form of *câf*, *I obtain*, with the verb-noun :
e.g. câem weled, *we should see*; *câech wybod*, *you would know*.
- 506 OBS. 4.—In the case of many verbs denoting an *action* this meaning is sometimes expressed by using the Past Imperfect form of *gwnâf*, *I do*, with the verb-noun :
e.g. mi wnawn fyned yno, *I should go there, if I were allowed*.

The Aorist.

- 507 The Aorist has two chief meanings in Welsh :
 (A) as a true Aorist ;
 (B) as a Perfect :
e.g. ysgrifennaiis, *I wrote or I have written*.
- 508 (A) as a true Aorist :
 (1) To mark an action or state as simply occurring in the past ; this is the commonest meaning of the tense :
e.g. gwelais, *I saw* ; *ysgrifennaiis*, *I wrote* ; *bŷm*, *I was* ; *teimlais*, *I felt*.
- 509 As the narrative tense (i.e. as the tense answering the question 'What happened next?'), the Aorist is used to recount a number of past actions which occurred in succession, by marking them each separately as simply past :
e.g. aeth i'r ty a chwiliodd y lle, *he went into the house and searched the place*.
- 510 The Aorist is sometimes used, as in Greek, in an ingressive sense :
e.g. wylais, *I burst into tears*.—Contrast *wylwn*, *I was weeping or kept weeping*.
- 511 (2) To mark an action as *then* past, i.e. as having occurred, before some other action in the past ; here English generally has the Perfect Participle Passive with *had* :
e.g. pan ganodd yr udgorn, cychwynasant, *when the trumpet had sounded, they advanced*.
- 512 N.B.—The English Past Tense of verbs denoting an *action* is generally to be translated by the Aorist (*e.g. lleferais*, *I spoke*), but,

when it denotes *past habit* or describes the action as *then going on*, it must be translated by the Past Imperfect :

e.g. yna torodd allan gythrwfi digyffelyb ; wylai rhai, gwaeddai eraill, a rhuthrent fel y gallent am y pyrth, *then there broke out a great uproar ; some wept, others shouted, and rushed, as best they could, for the gates.*

- 513 *Oss.*—*gwnethum, I did*, followed by a verb-noun, is often employed to express an Aorist, especially where the verb-noun is placed first in a sentence or clause of inverted order : *e.g.* rhedeg a wnaeth, *he ran.*

- 514 (B) As a Perfect, the Aorist may be used to describe an action as *now completed* :

e.g. bŷm yn Rhufain, *I have been in Rome.*
deuthum adref, *I have come home.*
gwelais y dyn, *I have seen the man.*
dysgais fy ngwers, *I have learnt my lesson.*

The Perfect.

- 515 The Perfect meaning is most commonly expressed by means of the Present of *wyf*, followed by the verb-noun with *wedi*, *after*, or by means of *bŷm*, *I have been*, the Perfect of *wyf*, followed by the verb-noun with *yn*, *in*, to express a Perfect Continuous : *

e.g. yr wyf wedi myned, *I have gone* (lit. *I am after going*).
bŷm yn myned, *I have been going* (lit. *I have been in going*, i.e. *in the act of going*).

- 516 *NOTE.*—The Perfect forms of *âf*, *I go* ; *deuaf*, *I come* ; *gwnâf*, *I make* ; are now obsolete. The old Present forms *darwyf*, *hanwyf*, *canwyf*, and *gorwyf* (see Acc. p. 58), were mostly used with Perfect meaning, possibly on the analogy of the Perfect forms of *âf*, *deuaf* and *gwnâf*.

The Future Perfect.

- 517 The Future Perfect meaning is expressed by means of *byddaf*, *I shall be*, followed by a verb-noun with *wedi*, *after* :
e.g. byddaf wedi gwelod, *I shall have seen.*

The Pluperfect.

- 518 The Pluperfect form, like that of the Past Imperfect, has two distinct meanings :

(A) as a true Perfect of the past (Past Perfect) ;
(B) as a Secondary Future Perfect (Future Perfect of the past) :

e.g. gwelwswn, *I had seen* or *I should have seen.*

* The Perfect meaning is also commonly expressed by using *darfu*. See Accidence, § 280f.

MEANINGS OF THE MOODS.

The Subjunctive Mood.

526 The Subjunctive Mood, so far as it is used in Modern Welsh, is very largely a survival. It has only one special form, namely, that of the Present Subjunctive. The Past Imperfect Subjunctive and the Pluperfect Subjunctive are the same in form as the Past Imperfect Indicative and the Pluperfect Indicative, in all verbs except *wyf* and *caf*.*

527 In Mediæval Welsh and even in the translation of the Bible the Subjunctive was much more frequently used than it is now. Several of the instances where it survives in modern Welsh prose are expressions such as *fel y mynno*, *as he pleases*; *doed a ddelo*, *come what may*; *cyn bo hir*, *before (it shall be) long*; *costied a gostio*, *cost what it may*; *dywedod a ddywedo*, *say what he will*.

528 N.B.—Distinguish carefully the use of the Past Imperfect and Pluperfect tense-forms as Subjunctives from their use as Secondary Futures and Secondary Future Perfects (see §§ 501, 502, 521, 522).

The chief uses of the Present Subjunctive are:—

529 (1) Like the Latin Present Subjunctive and the Greek Optative, to express wish:

e.g. *Duw a'n bendithio!* *May God bless us!*

530 (2) In Clauses expressing purpose:

e.g. *fel y byddo byw eich enaid*, *that your soul may live.*
môdd y caffo hi'r blaen ar lawer o'i chymydogesau, *that she may be ahead of many of her neighbours.*

(Elis Wyn, Bardd Cwsg.)

531 (3) Occasionally, in negative Noun Clauses after a verb meaning *to command* or *to beware*:

e.g. *gwêl na'th orchfygo*, *see that he do not overcome thee.*

532 (4) In Concessive Clauses after *cyd* (rare) and after Comparatives of Equality:

e.g. *cyd gwichio'r fenn*, *hi a ddwg ei llwyth*, *though the waggon creak, it carries its load.*

er pereiddied a chyflawned fyddont, *however fragrant and perfect they may be.*

(Chas. Edwards.)

* The forms *bawn* and *caffwn* from *wyf* and *caf* (see Accidence §§ 195a, 263) are employed as follows: *bawn* is used after *pê*, *if*; *oni*, *if not*; *fel*, *so that* (in Consecutive Clauses): *caffwn* is used wherever the clause requires the Past Imperfect Subjunctive.

- 533 (5) In Relative Clauses and Adverb Clauses of Time, Place, and Comparison, when the action is to be marked as *prospective* (implying future contingency*) or *general*: also not unfrequently in Characterizing Relative Clauses:
e.g. abl i bawb a'i bodlono, *sufficient for each is that which satisfies (=shall or may satisfy) him.* (Prospective Rel. Clause, § 364.)
 a fynno iechyd, bid lawen, *whosoever desires health, let him be joyful.* (General Rel. Clause, § 364.)
 llwm tir ni phoro dafad, *bare is the land which a sheep does not graze.* (Characterizing Rel. Clause, § 364.)
 nes machludo yr haul, *until the sun shall set.* (Prospective Clause of Time, § 347a.)
 llon fydd y llygoden, pryd ni bo'r gâth gartref, *the mouse is merry, whenever the cat is not at home.* (General Clause of Time, § 347a.)
 hawdd cymod lle bo cariad, *reconciliation is easy wherever there is love.* (General Clause of Place, § 348.)
 minnau atebaf yn oreu mettrwyf (Gr. Roberts, 1563), *I shall answer as best I can (=shall be able).* (Prospective Clause of Comparison, § 359.)
 pŏb ūn fel y gallo allan o'r Ysgrhythrau Sanctaidd (C. Edwards), *each as he shall be able out of the Holy Scriptures.* (Prospective Clause of Comparison, § 359.)
- 534 (6) Occasionally in Indirect Questions, when the action is marked as contingent:
e.g. nid gwaeth imi beth a ddywedo ffyliaid, *it makes no difference to me what fools may say.* (Morgan Llwyd.)

The Imperative Mood.

- 535 The Imperative marks an action as *demanded*. Neg. nac (nā). It is used:
 (a) In Commands: *e.g.* dywed, *say*; nā ddywed, *say not*.
 (b) In Suppositions and Concessions:
e.g. dyweded a fynno, ni newidiant, *let him say what he will, they will not change.*

* It is the contingency of the action that is chiefly suggested by the Subjunctive in Welsh.

THE VERB-NOUN AND VERB-ADJECTIVES.

- 536 The verb-noun in Welsh, inasmuch as it is the *name* of an action, is treated in many respects like a noun; but, as it is the name of an *action* some of its constructions resemble those of the verb.
- 537 Modern Welsh, doubtless largely influenced in the course of centuries by the practice of translating from other languages, tends to be conscious rather of the verbal aspect of the verb-noun as the name of an *action*, than of its nominal aspect as the *name* of an action. The student of the language, therefore, often finds it difficult to reconcile his treatment of the verb-noun from the point of view of accident, where it has very largely the construction of a noun, with its inner consciousness of its verbal aspect. The Welshman of the present day is still more inclined to lay emphasis upon the verbal affinities of the verb-noun, owing to the fact that he habitually makes use of the verb-noun in translating the English Infinitive. To the student of language, nothing can be more interesting than the adjustment of the categories of one language to those of another, when the linguistic consciousness is of necessity bilingual. It is always interesting, too, to observe the discrepancies which sometimes arise between the subjective classifications of forms by those who speak a language, and the objective classifications based upon a study of the inherited forms themselves.

The verb-noun without a preposition.

The verb-noun may stand—

- 538 1. As the Subject of a sentence :
- e.g.* mae canu dā yn werth ei wrando, *good singing is worth hearing.*
 ac mae'n ddyled eu canmawl, *and it is our duty to praise them* : lit. *the praising of them is a duty.* (E. Prys.)
 aeth eu bōd ac aeth eu henwau, *their being and their names have vanished.*

NOTE.—When the verb-noun is separated by means of a Predicate-adjective from the verb to which it is Subject, the verb-noun does not undergo initial mutation : *e.g.* mae yn anhawdd myned, *it is difficult to go* (lit. *going is difficult.*)

- 539 2. As the Object, depending on certain verbs (see § 330, where a list of verbs taking a verb-noun as their Object is given) :
- e.g.* gall fyned, *he can go* ; medr ysgrifenu, *he can write.*

- 540 3. In dependence upon a noun and forming with it the equivalent of a compound noun in English.
e.g. amser hau, the time of sowing.
ysgol ganu, a singing school.
 For the initial mutation in 'ganu' see §§ 376-379.
- 541 Sometimes the dependent verb-noun is qualified by an adjective used adverbially:
e.g. plentyn newydd eni, a newly born child.
dau o bendefigion newydd ddyfod, two noblemen just arrived. (Bardd Cwsg.)

The noun depending on a verb-noun.

- 542 ~~as~~ The analogy of Irish, the use of possessive adjectives with the verb-noun, together with the non-mutation of the initial consonant of a noun depending upon it, all point to the fact that in Welsh such a noun was originally in the genitive case. This was a natural construction when the noun character of the verb-noun was prominent in consciousness, and the forms of the language are a survival from this stage of its history. To the Welshman of the present day, however, in whose mind the verbal aspect of the verb-noun has the greater prominence, the noun following a verb-noun of transitive meaning is viewed more as the Object of a verb than as a noun depending on a noun. At the same time, the student should make it clear in parsing that he understands the original construction.
- 543 A noun depending on a verb-noun may denote either the doer of the action expressed by the verb-noun (such a noun being originally a Subjective Genitive), or else the Object of the action (originally an Objective Genitive). If the verb-noun be intransitive, the dependent noun denotes the doer of the action; if transitive, its Object:
e.g. cyn dyfod y dyn, before the man came; lit. before the man's coming.
cyn gweled y dyn, before seeing the man; lit. before the seeing of the man.

The verb-noun qualified by possessive adjectives.

- 544 A possessive adjective corresponds to a genitive case. Hence, before an intransitive verb-noun, the possessive adjective denotes its Subject; before a transitive verb-noun, its Object:
e.g. cyn fy nyfod, before my coming.
cyn fy ngweled, before I was seen; lit. before my seeing = the seeing of me.

- 545 The use of the possessive adjective before a verb-noun of transitive meaning is very common when the verb *wyf* is followed by a verb-noun with a preposition; see § 524:

e.g. mae rhywun yn ei weled; *lit. there is someone in (=in the act of) seeing him.*

mae y dyn wedi ei ladd = { (a) *the man has slain him.*
(b) *the man has been slain.*

If the person denoted by the possessive adjective be the same as the Subject of the form of *wyf*, we have the second meaning (b); if it be different, then we have the first meaning (a).

OBS.—Note the use of the possessive adjective with *sefyll*, *standing*, *eistedd*, *sitting*, *gorwedd*, *reclining*, in the following and similar expressions: *yn ei sefyll*, *standing*; *ar fy eistedd*, *sitting*; *ar ei orwedd*, *reclining*.

The verb-noun with prepositions.

- 546 By means of the verb-noun governed by prepositions are formed participle-equivalents or verb-noun phrases equivalent in meaning to Adjective or Adverb Clauses; see § 346b:

e.g. yn myned, *going*; wedi myned, *having gone*; *ar fyned*, *about to go*; *gan ei fod*, *since he is*; *wedi (iddo) fyned*, *after he has gone*.

OBS.—The verb-noun governed by the prep. *i*, *to*, and qualified by possessive adjectives is often used to convey a meaning equivalent to that of the Latin gerundive:

e.g. mae y dasg i'w gwneyd *ar unwaith*, *the lesson is to be done at once.*

Employment of *gan*, *dan* and *yn* with the verb-noun.

The accurate use of phrases formed by means of the prepositions *gan* and *dan* with the verb-noun can only be acquired by observation and practice.

- 547 *gan* with the verb-noun is employed in such expressions as the following:—

(a) *aeth y gŵr i'r tŷ*, *gan dybied fod rhywun yno*, *the man went into the house, thinking that someone was there.*

(b) *gan farw ti a fyddi farw*, *verily (lit. dying) thou shalt die.*
gan with the verb-noun generally forms a Present participle-equivalent, referring to the Subject of the principal verb, and serves to explain an action expressed by that verb.

In expressions similar to (b), *gan* with the verb-noun has been regularly employed in the Welsh Bible to translate the 'Infinitive Absolute' of Hebrew, when added to the finite verb for the sake of emphasis.

- 548 dan with the verb-noun is chiefly employed to form Present participle-equivalents which have a similar force to the predicate participles of Greek (see Gk. Gram. § 324, 4, 5, 6). Such expressions generally imply, as in the case of gan, that the action denoted by the verb-noun is contemporaneous with that of the verb of the sentence, and are especially common when the verb-noun expresses some emotion such as *grief, joy, fear* or the like :—

e.g. aeth yno dan ganu, *he went there singing.*
 " " " wylo, " " " *weeping.*
 " " " grynu " " " *trembling.*
 " " " chwerthin " " " *laughing.*
 " " " gerdded * " " " *walking.*

- 549 yn followed by a verb-noun often forms a phrase equivalent in force to an Adjective Clause, or to a Predicate-participle (see § 550 foll.) or to an Absolute Clause (see § 561) :

e.g. dyna ddŷn yn rhedeg, *yonder is a man running (=who is running).*

Verb-noun equivalents of participles as Predicate-adjectives.

- 550 The place of a Present participle used as a Predicate-adjective is most commonly supplied in Welsh by means of a verb-noun with yn, *in* ; the place of a Perfect participle, by means of a verb-noun with wedi, *after*.

- 551 (a) With verbs of 'being' (wyf, *I am*, byddaf, *I am habitually*) and verbs denoting some modification of *being*, such as ymddanghosaf, *I appear* :

e.g. y mae yn gweithio, *he is working.*
 bydd yn gweithio, *he is in the habit of working.*
 ymiddengys wedi heneiddio, *he appears to have aged.*

- 552 (b) With verbs of 'continuing,' 'holding out' and 'wearying' :
 arhosaf, *I remain* | blinaf, *I am tired*

e.g. arhosaf yn siarad, *I shall remain speaking.*
 blinaf yn gwaeddi, *I become tired of shouting.*

- 553 (c) With verbs of 'perceiving,' 'knowing' and 'showing' :

e.g. gwelaf ef yn agoshau, *I see him approaching.*
 nis gwn am neb yn cashau y sawl a'i canmolant, *I know of*
 no one that hates those who praise him.
 dangoswch y bachgen yn rhedeg, *show the boy running.*

* rhedeg, *running*, requires the preposition ar, *on*.

- 554 After the verbs *daliaf* and *parhâf*, *I continue*, the verb-noun is usually preceded by the preposition *i*, *to* :
e.g. daliaf i ysgrifenu, I continue to write.
parhâf i weithio, I continue to work.
- 555 After verbs of 'doing well or ill' and verbs of 'rejoicing' and 'grieving,' the verb-noun is usually preceded by the preposition *wrth*, *by* :
e.g. yr ydych yn pechu wrth ddweyd celwydd, you are sinning in speaking falsehood.
ni lwyddwch wrth fod yn esgeulus, you will not succeed by being negligent.
llawenhâf wrth eich gweled yn iâch, I rejoice to see you well.
- 556 After verbs of 'going' and 'standing' the verb-noun generally takes *gan* and *dan* (see §§ 547, 548).

Verb-adjectives in -edig and -adwy.

- 557 Welsh has now no participles (though it has participle-equivalents, §§ 546-556). But it has two verb-adjectives, one ending in -edig, the other ending in -adwy.
- 558 The verb-adjective in -edig marks an action as either (1) *done* or (2) *do-able* (rare).
e.g. (1) gorphenedig, finished ; (2) gweledig, visible.
- 559 The verb-adjective in -adwy generally marks an action as *do-able*, like the Latin Gerundive :
e.g. annileadwy, that cannot be blotted out.
credadwy, that can be believed.
canfyddadwy, that can be perceived.

In some verb-adjectives, however, such as *safadwy*, *stable*, and *teimladwy*, *sensitive*, the ending -adwy seems to have an active force.

Many verbs have no corresponding verb-adjectives.

The present-stem employed as a verb-adjective.

- 560 A few present-stems are employed in Welsh as verb-adjectives corresponding in meaning for the most part to those ending in -edig :
e.g. carreg nâdd, a heum stone.
bara pryn, bought bread.
creigiau llösg, burnt rocks.
mynydd llösg, a burning mountain, a volcano.
creigiau crög, overhanging rocks.
- Similarly :—*fel helyg plan | oddeutu glan yr afon, like planted willows about the river bank. (E. Prys.)*

- 568 4. Sometimes the simple personal pronoun added to a verb, or to a noun preceded by a possessive adjective or to a preposition with a pronominal suffix is not emphatic. In that case it is an enclitic:

e.g. gwelais i = gwéla^{is}i, *I saw.*
 fy nhād i = fy nhā^{di}i, *my father.*
 arnaf fi = arna^{fi}i, *upon me.*

- 569 5. *my own, thine own*, etc. are expressed by adding *fy hūn, dy hūn*, *ein hunain*, etc., to a noun qualified by a possessive adjective:

e.g. fy nhŷ fy hūn or fy nhŷ-i fy hūn, *my own house.*
 dy dŷ dy hūn or dy dŷ-di dy hūn, *thine own house.*
 ein tŷ ein hunain or ein tŷ-ni ein hunain, *our own house.*

Relative Pronouns.

- 570 The relatives of Welsh consist partly of survivals like the proclitics *a* and *yr (y)*, or *ag* and *ar* followed by *a*, and partly of demonstratives preceded by the article, like *yr hwn, y nēb, y sawl*, or of interrogative forms like *pwŷ bynnag*, which, by their frequent association with the old relatives *a* and *yr (y)*, have ultimately acquired a relative force. Thus the history of these relatives in Welsh is the history of a transference to them of a relative meaning which they did not originally possess.* Such a transference is not unknown in language (*e.g.* the development of the relative meaning of the English 'that' = 'which'), and it was doubtless facilitated in Welsh by the weakness and evanescence of the proclitic relative *a*. The proclitics *a* and *yr (y)*, which always preceded the verb, came to be classed with meaningless verbal particles, and so completely has their relative origin sunk into oblivion in the minds of modern Welshmen, that a before the Aorist may be emphasized and lengthened to express a Perfect: *e.g.* mi ā welais, 'I have seen.' Even where *yr (y)* have undoubtedly retained their relative force in expressions in which *yr hwn* etc. never were employed, the tendency of a Welshman ignorant of the history of these proclitics is to imagine that *yr hwn* etc. have been omitted. See Appendix.

- 571 *ar*, in Med. Welsh or (*a*), *ar (a)*, is used in General Relative Clauses: *e.g.* pawb *ar a* welais, *everyone that I saw.*

- 572 *ag*, in Med. Welsh or (*a*), is used chiefly after *y fāth* and *y cyfryw*, *such*, after nouns qualified by Comparatives of Equality, and sometimes in General Relative Clauses:

e.g. y fāth *ag a* welais, *such as I saw.*
 y cyfryw *ag oeddynt*, *such as they were.*
 cystal dyn *ag a* welwyd erioed, *as good a man as was ever seen.*
 pawb *ag sydd mewn angen*, *everyone that is in need.*

* In such a sentence for instance as—*cyfrenwch i'r hwn y derbyniasoch ganddo*, *give to him from whom you have received*, *yr hwn* is preceded not by the preposition of the relative clause, but by the preposition of the antecedent.

- 573 *yr hwn* generally refers to a *particular* or *individual* antecedent :
e.g. *ein Tâd, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, our Father who art in Heaven.*
- 574 *ar, ag, y nêb, y sawl* and *pw y bynnag* are usually *general* :
e.g. *gwyn ei fyd y nêb sydd foddlon, blessed is he that is contented, i.e. whoever is contented.*
- 575 *yr hyn* (like the demonstrative pronoun *hyn*) generally refers to some fact, circumstance or statement :
e.g. *dywedodd ei fod yn flinedig, yr hyn sydd yn ddigon tebyg, he said that he was tired, which is not unlikely.*
- 576 *yr hwn, yr hon* and *yr hyn* are sometimes used as adjectives :
e.g. *yr hwn ddyn, which man ; yr hon ddynes, which woman ; yr hyn bêth, which thing.*
- 577 Sometimes *pa ūn* (like Breton 'pehini') is used for *yr hwn*, and *pa rai* (like Breton 'péré') for *y rhai* ; but hitherto these forms have been generally avoided by good writers.
- 578 N.B.—In Relative Clauses, when *yr hwn* is expressed, the negative is generally *nid (nī)* : where *a* and *yr (y)* would be used alone in affirmative sentences, *nad (nā)* is used, but *nid (nī)* is also sometimes found.

Indefinite pronouns and adjectives.

- 579 By their constant use in negative expressions *nêb, someone*, and *dim, nothing*, have acquired a negative meaning, like the French *aucun, personne* and *rien* :
e.g. *pw y sydd yno ? nêb ; who is there ? no one.*
bêth a wnaethoch ? dim ; what did you do ? nothing.
nêb corresponds to the Irish *nech, someone* (cf. Fr. *aucun* for Lat. *aliquis unus, someone*).
dim was originally a noun meaning 'a bit,' as in—*y dim lleiaf, the least bit* (cf. Latin *hilum, 'a whit,'* from which *ne-hilum = nihil, nothing*. Similarly the Fr. *rien, nothing*, is derived from Lat. *rem, acc. of rēs, thing*).
not — any, no, is expressed by *yr ūn* :
e.g. *ni welais yr un dyn, I saw no man.*

Demonstrative pronouns and adjectives.

- 580 The demonstrative *hwn (hon, hyn)* is sometimes employed after a noun qualified by a possessive adjective :
e.g. *fy mab hwn, this my son.*
hyn and *hynny* are generally employed for *hwn* and *hwnnw* after the nouns *pêth, thing*, and *pryd, time*.

The Definite Article.

- 581 The chief uses of the article are the same as in other languages (especially French, German, and Greek):
- (i) To mark off or distinguish particular individuals:
e.g. *y tri brawd, the three brothers.*
 - (ii) To denote the *whole* of a class or species: *
e.g. *mae y llew yn greadur ysglyfaethus, the lion is a beast of prey.*
cofiwch y morwyr, remember the sailors.
- 582 Welsh employs the article in the following expressions where no article is employed in English:—
1. With the demonstrative adjectives *hwn, hwnnw*, and the demonstrative adverbs, *yma, yna, acw*:
e.g. *y dyn hwn, this man* (cf. Gk. ὁ ἀνὴρ οὗτος).
" " *hwnnw, that man.*
" " *yma, this man (here).*
" " *yna, that man (near you).*
" " *acw, that man (yonder).*
 - 583 2. With certain words denoting fractions, when they denote a definite part of a known or previously mentioned whole:
e.g. *yr hanner, a half* (sometimes *the half*).
y traian, y drydedd ran, a third.
 - 584 3. With certain names of places:
- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| e.g. Yr Abermaw, <i>Barmouth</i> | Yr Affrig, <i>Africa</i> |
| Yr Amwythig, <i>Shrewsbury</i> | Yr Aipht, <i>Egypt</i> |
| Y Bala, <i>Bala</i> | Yr Alban, <i>Scotland</i> |
| Y Drefnewydd, <i>Newtown</i> | Yr Almaen, <i>Germany</i> |
| Y Rhyl, <i>Rhyl</i> | Yr Amerig, <i>America</i> |
| Y Trallwm, <i>Welshpool</i> | Yr Eidal, <i>Italy</i> |
| Y Wyddgrug, <i>Mold</i> | Yr Hispaen, <i>Spain</i> |
| | Yr India, <i>India</i> |
| | Yr Iwerddon, <i>Ireland</i> |
- 585 4. With the names of certain festivals:
- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| e.g. Y Grawys, <i>Lent</i> | Y Sulgwyn, <i>Whitsunday</i> |
| Y Nadolig, <i>Christmas</i> | Yr Ystwyll, <i>Epiphany</i> |
| Y Pasg, <i>Easter</i> | |
- 586 5. In the following idioms (cf. German Gram. P.G.S. § 471):—
- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| <i>yn y drêf, in town</i> | <i>yn yr ysgol, in school</i> |
| <i>yn yr eglwys, in church</i> | <i>yn y nefoedd, in heaven</i> |
| <i>yn y capel, in chapel</i> | <i>ar y ddaear, on earth</i> |
- Similarly *i'r drêf, to town*; *o'r drêf, from town, etc.*

* In Welsh, as in English, the article is often omitted with a plural noun denoting the whole of a class or species.

- 587 Where a noun is followed by a dependent noun, with or without the article, the first noun does not take the article in Welsh; it is felt to be already sufficiently defined by the dependent noun:

e.g. mab y brenin, *the son of the king* (German, *des Königs Sohn*).

mab brenin, *the son of a king*.

- 588 Note, however, y pen teulu, *the head of the family*, where pen teulu is treated like a compound word.

Employment of the article with öll and höll.

- 589 öll is used as a noun meaning *whole*, hence yr öll means *the whole*:

e.g. yr oll ohono, *the whole of it*.

höll is an adjective meaning *whole (entire), all (adj.)*.

e.g. yr höll fydd, *the whole world, the entire world*.

yr höll ddynion, *all the men*.

OBS.—The Welsh for *everyone* is pawb

” ” ” *each one* ” pŵb ün

” ” ” *each man* ” pŵb dyn

ADVERBS.

A. The Negatives.

- 590 nid (nī) is employed in Statements and Questions.

591 nac* (nā) ” ” Answers.

” ” ” Prohibitions.

- 592 nad (nā) is employed in negative clauses corresponding to those affirmative clauses in which the verb would be preceded by a yr (y). In Local Clauses and clauses with yr hwn or y sawl, nid (nī) is generally employed. nad (nā) is also employed after os, as well as in expressions of wish and interrogative clauses introduced by paham? *why?*

- 593 To negative individual words in Principal Clauses, nid is used; in negative Subordinate Clauses, where the corresponding affirmative clause would have mai, nad is employed (with the omission of mai).

- 594 In modern colloquial Welsh the negative employed in Statements and Questions takes the form nid (nī) ——— ddim, used in a manner similar to the French ne——pas, ne——point, *not*. From this construction nid (nī) is frequently omitted:

e.g. (nī) fūm i ddim yno, *I have not been there*.

* Chiefly before forms of *wyf*, such as *wyf*, *ydwyf*, *oes*, *oedd*, *ydoedd*.

- 595 The expression *ddim o*, *nothing of*, has been contracted into *mō* :
e.g. welais i mo'r dyn, I did not see the man,
for ni welais i ddim o'r dyn, I saw nothing of the man.
 Similarly '*ddim ohono*' has become *mohono*, often contracted
 in spoken Welsh into *mono*.

Employment of the negative with certain adjectives.

- 596 The negative is sometimes employed with an adjective as follows :

ni waeth gennyf pŵy ddaw, I do not mind who comes (lit. *not worse with me who comes*).

ni wiw iddo fyned, he must not go (lit. *not fitting for him to go*).

NOTE.—Similarly in Mediaeval Welsh *ni mōch, not soon* ; *ni phell, not far* ; *ni well, not better* ; *ni mād, not good*, were used like *ni waeth, ni wiw* in the preceding examples.

- 597 These instances are perhaps to be explained by an ellipsis of *yw, is*, between the negative and the adjective, or by an ellipsis of the old form *ys, it is*, before the negative.

B. Adverbs of Time.

- 598 Some adverbs of Time are interesting as preserving old grammatical forms :—

he-ddyw, to-day } *he*=an old demonstrative meaning *this*.

he-no, to-night

y fory, to-morrow (lit. *the morning*) ; *fory* is for *mory*=*morg*,
 akin to the Germ. *morgen*, Eng. *morrow*.

yn fore, early

yn hwyr, late

yn awr, now

} *yn* is here an old form of the definite article.

e-leni, this year ; *e*=*he, this* ; *leni* is from *vleni*=*flynedd, year*.

y llynedd, last year (lit. *the year*) for *yr flynedd*.

trannoeth, next day from Lat. *trans noctem, over night*.

trennydd, the day after to-morrow. The origin of the first part
 of this word is doubtful.

tradwy, =the day after trennydd.

doe, yesterday.

neithiwr, last night.

echdoe, the day before yesterday ; *ech* is cognate with Lat. *ex*,
 from, Gk. *ἐξ*.

echnos, the night before last.

beunydd, daily, for *beb-n-dydd* ; *beb*=*bob* for *pob, every* ; *n* in

beb-n is probably a remnant of the old accusative ending.

gynneu, just now.

byth, *ever, for ever*, referring to the present or to the future.
 erioed, *ever*, referring to the past. erioed, stands for er i (=ei)
 oed, *since his life (began)*. In Mediæval Welsh a form
 ermoed = er m oed = er fy oed, *since my life (began)*, was
 used.

weithion, *by this time*, = (y) weith hon, *this time*.
 eisoes, *already*, in Mediæval Welsh = *yet, nevertheless*.
 trachefn, mutated into drachefn, *again*, lit. *over her back*, for
 dra ei chefn. In Mediæval Welsh a corresponding form
 draegeuyn = dra ei gefn, *over his back*, was employed.
 er ys meityn, *for a long time*, lit. *since the morning*: meityn is from
 the Latin *mātūtīnus*, *belonging to the morning*.

C. Adverbs of Place.

- 599 The following adverbs of place, which are derived from pre-
 positions by the addition of a suffix, should be noted :—
 tanodd, *underneath* from tan (dan), *under*
 trwodd, *through* „ trwy (drwy), *through*
 trosodd, *over* „ tros (dros), *over*
 uchod, *above* = uchot, *over thee*, from uwch, *over*.
 isod, *below* = isot, *under thee*, „ is, *under*.

WORDS REPRESENTING SENTENCES OR PARTS OF SENTENCES.

- 600 The following words, representing sentences or parts of sen-
 tences, are found in Welsh :—
 wele, *behold*
 { nachaf (obs.) „
 { nycha (obs.) „
 llyma, *here is* (rare), for syll yma, *look here*. Fr. voici.
 llyna, *there is* (rare), „ syll yna, *look there*. Fr. voilà.
 dyma, *here* „ wel di yma, *see thou here*. Fr. voici.
 dyna, *there is* „ wel di yna, *see thou there*. Fr. voilà.
 dacw, *yonder is* „ wel di acw, *see thou yonder*. Fr. voilà.
 ie, *yes* „ i ef, *it is* (?)
 nāge, *no* „ nag ef, *not it*
 aié, *is it so?* „ a i ef, *is it?*
 onidē, yntē, *is it not so?* „ o nid ef, *is it not?*
 sef, *that is, namely* „ ys ef, *it is*.
 tybed, *I wonder*, used parenthetically: derivation unknown.
 dō, *yes*, when the verb of the question is Aorist.
 nāddo, *no*, „ „ „ „ „ „ „ „

ef in all these ex-
 pressions represents
 the old neuter pro-
 noun S. 3.

APPENDIX.

NORMAL AND INVERTED ORDER.

The sentences described in §§ 303, 305 as sentences of normal and inverted order respectively are so described according to their natural classification, from the point of view of Descriptive Grammar, in the mind of a Welshman who forms them at the present day. In modern Welsh prose, good writers, in accordance with the regular practice of the spoken language, have more and more confined the use of a simple sentence or principal clause of inverted order to those statements or questions in which the words placed before the verb are emphatic. The emphatic words thus standing in the most prominent position in the sentence constitute what Paul, in his *Principles of Language*, calls "the psychological predicate," *i.e.* the words which express the information which the sentence in question is primarily intended to convey. In Mediæval Welsh, on the other hand, and even later, the Subject of the sentence was not unfrequently placed before the verb, even where it (the Subject) had no special emphasis laid upon it.

At the present day sentences of inverted order are formed by simple inversion; but it is highly probable that, historically, one of the inherited types upon which they are modelled (at any rate, when the words placed first in the sentence are emphatic) was not itself the product of mere inversion. The use in such sentences of the pre-verbal particles a (= Bret. a, Corn. a) and yr (y) (= Bret. ez (e), Cornish yth (y)), probably in their origin pronominal (see § 167), coupled with the fact that the verb of such a sentence, like that of a relative clause,* stands idiomatically in the 3rd pers. sing., forcibly suggests, as Zeuss† has pointed out, that the type of sentence in question is parallel in its origin to the Irish construction, in which the sentence as a whole is complex, beginning with the word 'is' (= Welsh ys, *it is*) or with a noun standing absolutely. Since ys, in Welsh MSS., is rare before nouns, it is probable, unless we are to suppose the early omission of ys, that Welsh preferred the type of sentence in which the words specially emphasized stood in the absolute construction: *e.g.* dynion | sydd yma, rather than ys dynion sydd yma. The closer coalescence, in course of centuries, of the elements of disguised complex sentences like these has no doubt ultimately given the sentence of inverted order the aspect of a simple sentence.

This view of the origin of these sentences is, however, not entirely free from difficulty. It would be a mistake to suppose that Mediæval Welsh always required the use of one of the particles a or yd (=ydd, modern yr), when the order of the sentence was inverted. In mediæval poetry, especially, sentences of inverted order are often found, whose verb is preceded by no particle or by one of the particles ry (Irish ro, Gk. *ῥῶ*) or dy (Irish do).

* The use of the form *sydd*, when the subject precedes the verb, is a further confirmation of this view, *sydd* being the form of the Pres. Indic. S. 3 of *ŵyf*, which is used in a relative clause.

† Zeuss, *Grammatica Celtica* (2nd Edit., p. 926): "Est autem hæc constructio sine dubio eadem solutio sententiæ, per quam in vetusta lingua hibernica vox aliqua cum emphasi proferenda e regulari ordine vocum ad initium transfertur verbo substantivo præmisso, vel sine eo posita absolute."

Even in mediæval prose we occasionally find a sentence of inverted order with *ry* before the verb, without 'a': e.g. *coet rywelsom ar y weilgi*, 'we saw trees on the sea' (referring to the ships of Brân), Mab. Rhys-Evans, p. 35. In view of these considerations and the general tendency of the earlier stages of language to allow variation in the order of words, together with the fact that in Gaulish the Subject seems, in accordance with the regular Indo-European practice, to have generally preceded the verb, it would be rash to assert that simple sentences of inverted order did not continue to exist in Welsh side by side with the complex sentences to which reference has already been made.

The student of Welsh historical Syntax should note carefully all survivals of the Celtic practice, here indicated, of expressing a statement by means of a complex sentence beginning with a form of *wyf*, rather than by means of a simple sentence in the usual manner of most other languages. The tendency of Welsh, it is true, has been to eliminate or disguise, as far as possible, this somewhat cumbersome mode of expression; but, even in the modern language, there survive several instances of it, though most Welshmen are no longer aware of their history. Such survivals show themselves in the use of *mai* (in S. Wales *taw*) before noun and adverb clauses of inverted order, as well as in the forms *pe*, *if*, and *cany*s, *for*. The word *mai*, now dissociated, in the mental linguistic groupings of Welshmen, from the verb *wyf*, is identical in origin with the form *mae*, *there is*; while *taw*, the verbal origin of which could only be guessed by a comparative grammarian, had a like meaning, and corresponded to the Irish *tá*, from the root *sta-*, cognate with Latin *sta-re*, *to stand*. Hence the sentence *gwn ^{mai} _{taw} yno*, meant originally, literally

translated, *I know it is he that was there*. Similarly *pē, if*, stands for *pei = bei = bai*, *were it*, so that *pe bai* would literally mean, *were it that he (she or it) were*, and *cany*s stands for *can + ys*, *since it is*. Likewise the Mediæval *panyw*, equivalent in force to *mai*, stood for *pan + yw*, *that it is*.

In reading Mediæval Welsh prose and poetry, the use of these complex sentences, though even then disappearing, should be carefully noted. Such sentences illustrate sporadically in Welsh a very common phenomenon in Irish syntax. For example, in the story of Kilhwch and Olwen, we have, the sentence—*yny uyd kaer uawr a welynt, until they saw a great fort*, literally, *until it is a great fort which they saw*. The use of sentences of this kind is familiar as one of the most noticeable characteristics of English as spoken by uneducated Irishmen, and corresponds to a marked tendency of Irish Gaelic. It is not impossible, too, that the French method of beginning questions with 'est-ce que' is a survival of a similar tendency of Celtic speech.

In sentences of normal order, the verb is sometimes (chiefly in the colloquial Welsh of S. Wales) preceded by the word *fe*, a shortened form of *efe*, used as a formal pronoun (see § 133), where *fe* probably represents an old neuter pronoun S. 3. In Mediæval Welsh the corresponding simple form *ef* is used, in prose with *a*, in poetry often without *a*. The following instance illustrates the prose use—*ef a dyuu y hiawnbwyll idi, her right mind returned to her*. It is not easy to say, in the case of sentences of this kind, whether 'a' was originally used in them or not, since it may have crept in only by false analogy. The underlying principle of the construction is, however, clear enough: the 'ef' acts the part of a formal preparatory Subject, while the real Subject is put

after the verb in apposition to it, being added as a kind of explanatory afterthought.

In other cases the statement begins with a formal Predicate in combination with a formal Subject. For instance, a similar combination is found in the case of *sef=ys+ef*, frequently used in Mediæval Welsh prose (but rare in poetry) to introduce statements of the following form—

sef a oruc ynteu yna | ryuelu arnafi, this is (lit. it is) what he then did | he fought (lit. fighting) against me, Mab. Feredur.

sef yw ynteu | owein uab uryen, this is (lit. it is) who he is | Owen son of Urien. Mab. Owain and Lunet.

Here the information which the statement is especially intended to convey is expressed as a kind of afterthought by means of a word or group of words standing in apposition to the formal Subject or Object of the opening sentence.

In connexion with the development of the sentence (whether of normal or inverted order), the student of Welsh historical Syntax should carefully observe the use of the pre-verbal particles. In modern Welsh, *fe* (in S. Wales) and *mi* (in N. Wales), though probably both of pronominal origin, practically play the part of pre-verbal particles before a verb which is not in a subordinate position, while *a* and *yr* (*y*), probably also of pronominal origin, are now mentally grouped as pre-verbal particles, which mark the verb as subordinate, either as a subordinate element of the sentence in which it stands, or as the verb of a subordinate noun clause, adjective clause, or adverb clause. The student of Comparative Grammar can trace earlier functions of these particles, especially their relative force; but to those who now speak the language they have developed new functions.

In Mediæval Welsh the uses of *a* and *yd=ydd=yr* and *y* before verbs do not always exactly correspond to their uses at the present day. All such differences of usage the student should carefully note, especially the use of *ydd* (*y*) before the verb even in a sentence of normal order, a use which now survives only in the case of some forms of *wyf*: e.g. *yr wyf, yr oedd*.

In the older stages of the language certain other pre-verbal particles were used which have now been lost or obscured. For example, one may note the particle *yd* (for older *yt*, and not to be confused with *yd=ydd=yr*), now represented only by the 'y' of *yd-wyf, yd-oedd*, etc., and by the 'd' in *nid* (=ni+yd), *nad* (=na+yd), *ped* (=pe+yd), *od* (=o+yd). Another pre-verbal particle of frequent occurrence is *neu*, corresponding in force to the modern *fe* or *mi*, and often combined with *yd* as *neud*. The particle *na* (rare) may be a weak form of *neu*. In addition to these, the particles *ry* (=Irish *ro*) and *dy* (=Irish *do*) were once extensively used. Modern spoken Welsh is characterised by an almost complete elimination of pre-verbal particles; *a*, the most common in Literary Welsh, is almost always omitted, and *y* is evanescent. In spoken Welsh, the determining factor in the use of the particles which remain, seems to be the prominence or non-prominence of the verb as the leading element in a statement; where the verb takes a prominent position, as in a sentence of normal order, it is preceded by the particle *fe* or *mi*; on the other hand, if it be subordinate in its own sentence to an Adjunct, *yr* (*y*) is placed before it, and similarly when it is clearly subordinate as the verb of a subordinate noun clause, adjective clause, or adverb clause.

INDEX TO SYNTAX.

☞ The references are to the *sections* except when p. (=page) precedes.

A.—ENGLISH INDEX.

- Absolute Phrases, 361.
 Accusative of nearer definition, substitute for, 387.
 Active Voice, with intransitive meaning, 462.
 Adjective, as Attribute, agreement of, 336; followed by prep. *of*, 401; place of, 337.
 Adjective Clauses, 313, 362-364.
 Adjective-equivalents, 310.
 Adjuncts, 307.
 Adverbs, 590-599; Negative, 590-597; of Place, 599; Time, 598; Sentence-adverbs, 315 (6); Predicate-adjective for, 324 (4); noun as, 385.
 Adverb Clauses and Phrases, 346*.
 Adverb-equivalents, 311.
 Age, how expressed, 386.
 Agreement of Adjective as Attribute, 336; of Verb with Subject, 317-323; of Predicate-adjective, 325; of Relative, 363.
Although, 358a, 358b.
 Answers, 286, 287, 600.
 Aorist, meanings of, 507-513; as Perfect, 514; contrasted with Past Impf., 512.
 Apposition, 310 (*d*).
 Article, 581-589; with names of festivals, 585; with place-names, 584.
As if, 360 (*r*).
 Attributes, 306, 336; noun as Attribute, 338.
 Cases, substitute for, 372-387.
 Causal Clauses, 346*c, 349a.
 Causal Clause-equivalents, 349b.
 Clause, Principal, 312; Subordinate, 308, 312.
 Clause-equivalent, Construction of, 346b; Noun, 367-368b; Causal, 349b; Concessive, 358b; Conditional, 357; Consecutive, 352b; Final, 351.
 Commands, 341a.
 Comparative Clauses, 346*/*l*, 359a.
 Complex Sentence, 312, 346a.
 Compound Subject, 320-322.
 Compound prepositional expressions, introduced by *i*, 396.
 Compound Tenses, parsing of, 524, 525.
 Concessions, 343.
 Concessive Clause-equivalents, 358b.
 Concessive Clauses, 346*g, 358a.
 Conditional Clauses, 346*f, 353-356; *os*-clauses, 354; *pe*-clauses, 355, 356.
 Conditional statements of possibility, 340, B.
 Conjunctions, co-ordinating, 314; subordinating, 315.
 Consecutive Clause-equivalents, 352b.
 Consecutive Clauses, 346*c, 352a; Relative, 364.
 Dative, "Ethical," equivalent of, 391.
 Deliberative Questions, Single, 344b; Double, 344c; Dependent, 370b.
 Dependent Exclamations, 370c, 370*.
 Dependent noun, placed first, 383; with initial mutation, 378, 379.
 Dependent Questions, 370a, 370b, 370*.
 Dependent Statements, 365 A, 366.

Dependent Will-Speech, 366.
Distance, how expressed, 455.

Equivalents, 308; Noun, 309;
Adjective, 310; Adverb, 311.

Equivalents of clauses, *see* Clause-equivalents.

Ever-clauses, Time, 347a; Place, 348; Relative, 364.

Exclamations, 345; Dependent, 370a.

Final Clause-equivalents, 351.

Final Clauses, 346^d, 350.

For, 314.

Fixed prepositions, verbs taking, 329, 332.

Future, Indic., 480-483.

Future Perfect, 517.

General-clauses, *see Ever*-clauses.

General Relative Clause, 364.

Genitive, equivalent for, 374-383, 392, 398-402; Objective, 375;
Possessive, 374; Partitive, 380;
Subjective, 375, obs.; of Comparison, 381.

"*How broad*," 456.

"*How high*," 456.

"*How long*," 456.

"*How old*," 459.

If-clauses, 346^f, 353-356; Class A, 354; Class B, 355; General Conditions, 354b.

Imperative, 535.

Impersonal Construction, 316 (5).

Impersonal verbs, 316 (5).

Indefinite, 2nd pers. sing., 340 (note 2); Pronouns and adjectives, 579.

Indirect Speech, 371.

Interrogative Particles, 283.

Intransitive, 304 (note).

Inverted order, 305, and Appendix.

Local Clauses, 346^b, 348.

Meanings of forms, 372, foll.

Measurement, how expressed, 386.

Middle Voice, substitute for, 463-466.
Moods, meanings of, 526-535.

Negative Commands (Prohibitions), 341b.

Negative, 590-597; with certain adjectives, 596, 597.

Noun, as Attribute, 338; depending on a noun, 374-383; depending on a verb-noun, 542, 543; depending on a verb, 384-387.

Noun Clauses, 365.

Noun Phrases, 367.

Noun-equivalents, 309.

Object, 304, 326; Cognate, 326 (2); single, 304, III., 326-330; two Objects, 304, IV., 331-333; verb-noun as single, 330; verb-noun as one Object, 333; Predicate-noun and Predicate-adjective referring to, 304, V., 334, 335.

Objective Genitive, 375.

Oratio Obliqua and Recta, 371.

Order of words, 303, 305, and Appendix.

Participle-equivalents as Predicate-adjectives, 550-556.

Partitive Genitive, 380.

Passive Construction, 327.

Passive Voice, 327, 461.

Past Imperfect, meanings of, 491-500; as Secondary Future, 501-506; contrasted with Aorist, 512; Subjunctive, 355, 526, 528.

Perfect, 514-516.

Phrase, definition of, 308.

Phrases, Absolute, 361; Noun, 367;

Verb-noun, 346b; Adverb, 346^c.

"Place whence," 453; "where," 453; "whither," 453.

Pluperfect Indic. 518-520; as Secondary Future, 503, 504; as Secondary Fut. Perf., 521-523; Subjunctive, 355, 526.

Predicate, 301, 304, 317-335; Second Form, 324, 325; Third Form, 326-330; Fourth Form, 331-333; Fifth Form, 334, 335; Remainder of, 301, 303, 304.

Predicate-adjective, 304, II.; agreement of, 325; for Adverb, 324 (4).
 Predicate-noun, 304, II.

Prepositions, 388.

Present Indic., 472; as true Pres., 473-478; as Future, 480-483.

"Price," how expressed, 386.

Prohibitions, 341b.

Pronouns, Demonstrative, 580; Indefinite, 579; Personal, 561-569; Relative, 570-578.

Prospective, Time Clauses, 347a; Local Clauses, 348; Relative Clauses, 364.

Purpose, 346d, 350, 351.

Qualifying parts of sentence, 306, 307.

Questions, 344a-344d; Dependent, 370a.

Reflexive verb, substitutes for, 463-466.

Relative Clauses, 364.

"Reported" speech, 371.

Requests, 339, 341a-343; Dependent, 366.

Sentence-adverbs, 315 (6).

Sentence-construction, 316-371.

Sentence, normal order of words in, 303; inverted order, 305, and Appendix; Simple and Complex, 312; Analysis of, 301-315; kinds of, 339; words representing parts of, 600.

Sequence of Tenses, 369b, 370b.

Simple Sentence, 312.

Space, Expressions of, 455, 456.

Statements, of fact, 340, A; Conditional S., 340 B; Dependent, 365 A, 366.

Subject, 301, 303, 304, 316, 317-323; agreement of verb with, 317-323; not expressed, 316 (4).

Subjective Genitive, 375, obs.

Subjunctive, 526-534; uses of, 529-534.

Subordinate Clause, kinds of, 313.

Subordinating Conjunctions, 315.

Temporal Clauses, 346a, 347a.

Temporal Clause-equivalents, 347b.

Tenses, Meanings of, 467-526; of Indic., 472-525; of Subjunctive, 526.

Than if, 346**h*, 360 (a).

The more—the more, 359a (3).

They=one, 316 (5).

Time, 457-460; "How long," 457;

"Time when," 457; "Time within which," 460.

Transitive, 304 (note).

Verb, forming a complete Predicate, 304, I.

Verb-adjectives, 557-560.

Verb-noun, 536-556; as Object, 330, 333; standing alone, 538-541; noun depending on, 542, 543; qualified by possessive adjectives, 544, 545; governed by prepositions, 546; verb-noun phrase, construction of, 346b.

Verbs of *saying*, 369a (1).

„ „ *thinking*, 369a (2).

„ „ *perceiving*, 369a (3).

„ „ *knowing*, 369a (4).

„ „ *showing*, 369a (5).

„ „ *rejoicing, grieving and wondering*, 369a (6).

„ „ *fearing*, 369a (7).

„ „ *Effort*, 369a (9).

„ „ *Will or Desire*, 369a (10).

„ in Predicate of Second Form, 324.

„ taking fixed prepositions, 329, 332.

Voices, meanings of, 461, 462.

Voice, Middle, substitute for, 463-466.

„ Passive, 327, 461.

Wishes, 342.

B.—WELSH INDEX.

a (interrogative), 370a.
 ac (a), 314; in Absolute Phrases, 361.
 achubaf [rhag], 332 f.
 addawaf, 330, 333, 369a; — [i], 332 a.
 addefaf, 369a (1); — [wrth], 332 c.
 adwaen, 349b (note), 367 (obs.).
 ag (a), 405; verbs taking, 329 a, 332 d.
 ag, in Relative Clauses, 572, 574.
 agoshaf [at], 329 c.
 ai (interrogative), 370a.
 ai, or, 314.
 aie, 600.
 am, 406; after Verbs of Effort, 368a (2).
 am ben, 406.
 am, *if only*, 346* f.
 am, *because*, 346* c.
 ambell, 394.
 amdan, 406.
 amddifad [o], 401.
 amddifadaf [o], 332 b.
 aml, 394.
 amlygaf, 369a (5).
 aneirif [o], 400 (note).
 angeu loes, 383.
 anghofiaf, 330, 369a (4).
 annhebyg [o], 401.
 anogaf, 333, 369a (10).
 anobeithiaf, 330.
 anturiaf, 330.
 ar, *on*, 407; verbs taking, 329 b; in Noun Phrases of Request.
 ar, in Relative Clauses, 571, 574.
 ar ben, 407b.
 ar draws, 407b.
 ar gyfer, 407b.
 ar gyfyl, 407b.
 ar hyd, 407b.
 ar warthaf, 407b.
 arall, 336, 337.
 arbedaf, 333.
 archaf, 333.
 arferaf, 330, 349b (note).
 argyhoeddaf [o], 332 b.
 arhosaf, 324 (1).
 arswydaf, 330.
 at, 408; verbs taking, 329 c, 332 e.

atebaf [i], 332 a.
 awgrymaf, 333, 369a (1).
 balch [o], 401.
 beiaf [ar], 329 b.
 beiddiaf, 330.
 bet, 445.
 beunydd, 598.
 blinaf [ar], 329 b.
 boddlonaf [ar], 329 b.
 boreu wawr, 383.
 brysiaf, 330.
 bwriadaf, 333, 369a (10).
 bwyd ddigon, 383.
 bychan, 336.
 bygythiaf, 330, 369a (1).
 byth, 598.
 cadarn, 336.
 cadwaf [at], 329 c; — [rhag], 332 f.
 Caersalem byrth, 383.
 cāf, 330, 333, 369a (3), 481.
 cam, 337.
 canfyddaf, 369a (3).
 caniataf, 333.
 cant, can, *with*, 446.
 canys, 314, and Appendix.
 caraf, 330.
 cartref, 454.
 cashaf, 330.
 cefnaf [ar], 329 b.
 ceisiaf, 330, 333.
 cenfigenaf [wrth], 329 d.
 clywaf, 349b (note), 369a (3).
 coellaf, 369a (2).
 cofiaf, 330, 369a (4).
 cychwynaf, 330.
 chwaneg [o], 400.
 chwanegaf [at], 332 e.
 chwenychaf, 330.
 credaf, 369a (2).
 crefaf, 368 B (2), 369a (10).
 creir, 324 (2).
 cwynaf [ar], 329 b.
 cŷd, *with*, 447.
 cŷd, *though*, 346 g, 358a (3).
 cydymdeimlaf [a], 329 a.
 cyfaddefaf [wrth], 332 c.
 cyfan, 336.

- cyfeiriad [at], 329 *c*.
 cyfrifir, 324 (2).
 cyffesaf [wrth], 332 *c*.
 cyfrannog [o], 401.
 cyfranogaf [o], 329.
 cyhoeddaf, 369a (5).
 cyhuddaf [o], 332 *b*.
 cyhyd ag, 346* *a*.
 cymeraf (arnaf), 369a (1).
 cymhwysaf [at], 332 *c*.
 cymmaint [o], 400.
 cymysgaf [a], 332 *d*.
 cyn, prep., 409; in Time Clauses, 346* *a*.
 cynefinaf [a], 329 *a*.
 cynghoraf, 333, 369a (10).
 cynnifer [o], 400.
 cyntaf, 337.
 cynygial, 330, 333; — [i], 332 *a*.
 cynysgaeddaf [a], 332 *d*.
 cysylltfa [a], 332 *d*.
 cytunaf [a], 329 *a*.

 dacw, 600.
 daear lawr, 383.
 daliad [ar], 329 *b*; — [i], 554.
 dan, 410; with verb-noun, 548, 556.
 danghosaf [i], 332 *a*, 369a (5).
 darganfyddaf, 369a (3).
 deisyf, 333, 368 B (2), 369a (10).
 deuaf, 324 (1).
 dewisaf, 330.
 dialaf [ar], 329 *b*.
 diammeu, 369a (8).
 diau, 369a (8).
 dichon, 369a (8).
 digial [wrth], 329 *d*.
 digon, 380, 400.
 digwyddaf, 330, 369a (8).
 dim, 382, 400, 579.
 diogelaf [rhag], 332 *f*.
 disgwyliad, 330.
 dō, 600.
 doe, 598.
 dros, 411, 358b (2).
 drwr, 357, 412.
 dychrynlyd [o], 402.
 dychymygaf, 369a (2).
 dyfalaf, 369a (2).
 dylanwadaf [ar], 329 *b*.
 dyma, 600.

 dymunaf, 330, 333, 369a (10).
 dyna, 600.
 dynion lawer, 383.
 dysgaf, 330; — [i], 332 *a*, 333.
 dywedaf [wrth], 329 *d*; followed by Noun Clause, 369a (1).

 echdoe, 598.
 echnos, 598.
 Eden ardd, 383.
 edliwial [i], 332 *a*.
 edrychaf [ar], 329 *b*.
 efallai, 369a (8).
 efo, 413.
 egluraf, 369a (5).
 eisoes, 598.
 eithr, 314.
 eleni, 598.
 er, *for the sake of*, 416.
 er, *for*, to, 417.
 er, *in spite of*, 415.
 er, *since*, 414.
 er, *though*, 346* *g*, 358a.
 er gwaethaf, 415.
 er pan, 346* *a*.
 erbyn, 418.
 erfyniad, 333.
 erioed, 598.
 ers, er ys, 414.
 etholir, 324 (2).
 euog [o], 401.
 ewyllysiaf, 333, 369a (10).

 fe, *see* Appendix.
 feallai, 369a (8).
 fel, *as*, 335; in Comparative Clauses, 346* *h*.
 fel, *in order that*, 346* *d*.
 fel, *so that*, 346* *e*.
 fel pe, 346* *h*.
 felly, 315 (6).

 gadawaf [i], 332 *a*.
 gallaf, 330, 349 *b* (note).
 galwaf [ar], 329 *b*, 333.
 gan, prep., 327, 419, 443; with verb-noun, 547, 556.
 gan, *since*, 346* *c*.
 gau, 337.
 gelwir, 324 (2).
 ger, 420.

ger bron, 420.
 ger llaw, 420.
 gerfydd, 421.
 glynaf [wrth], 329 *d*.
 go, 337, 448.
 gobeithiaf, 330, 369a (2).
 gochelaf, 330.
 goddefaf, 333.
 gofalaf, 369a (9).
 gofidiaf, 369a (6).
 gofynaf [i], 332a.
 gogyfer ag, 423.
 gor, 449.
 gorchymynaf, 333, 369a (10).
 gormod [o], 400.
 gorphenaf, 330.
 gosodaf [at], 332 *e*; — [i], 332 *a*.
 gwadaf, 369a (1).
 gwaeddaf [ar], 329 *b*.
 gwaeth, 596.
 gwaharddaf, 333.
 gwarafunaf, 333.
 gwan, 336.
 gweddiaf [ar], 329 *b*.
 gwelaf, 349b (note), 369a (3), 369a (9).
 gvenaf [ar], 329 *b*.
 gwir, 337, 369a (8).
 gwiw, 596.
 gwn, 349b (note), 369a (4).
 gwnaf, 333, 369a (9).
 gwr o saer, 398.
 gwrthodaf, 330, 333.
 gwyliaf [ar], 329 *b*; — [rhag], 332 *f*.
 gwyneb pryd, 383.
 gydag (gyda), *with*, 422.
 gydag (gyda), *just as*, 346* *a*.
 gyfeiryd ag, 423.
 gynneu, 598.
 gynted ag, 346* *a*.

haeddaf, 330.
 han, 450.
 heb, 424.
 heblaw, 424.
 heb waethaf, 424.
 heddyw, 598.
 heibio (i), 425.
 hēn, 337.
 heriaf, 333.
 hi, 316.

höff [o], 401.
 hoffaf, 330.
 höll, 589.
 hwn, 580.
 hwyrach, 369a (8).
 hŷd, 426.
 hyd at, 426.
 hyd i, 426.
 hyd nes, 346* *a*.
 hyd oni, 346* *a*.
 hyn, 580; — [o], 400.
 hynny [o], 400.
 hynod [o], 402.

i, 389–397; denoting the agent in verb-noun phrases, 346b; for *di*, 397 (1); for *yn*, 397 (2).

i blith, 396.
i erbyn, 396.
i fysg, 396.
i ganol, 396.
*i*awn, 337.
ie, 600.
ieuanc, 336.
is, 381, 427.
is law, 427.
isod, 599.

llanwaf [o], 332 *b*.
 llawenyachaf, 369a (6).
 llawer, 394, 400; — [o], 400.
 llawn, 380; — [o], 401.
 llē, in Local Clauses, 346* *b*.
 llefaf [ar], 329 *b*.
 llefaraf [wrth], 329 *d*.
 lliaws [o], 400.
 llydan, 336.
 llyma, 600.
 llyna, 600.
 llynedd, 598.

maddeuaf [i], 332 *a*.
 mae, 484, 490.
 mai, 315 (4), 346* N.B., 366, and Appendix.
 marw, 336.
 meddaf, 349b (note); meddai, 371 (4).
 meddyliaf, 369a (2).
 medraf, 330.
 megis, *as*, 335.
 meiddiaf = beiddiaf, 330.

- merched rai, 383.
 methaf, 330.
 mewn, 428, 437.
 mo, 595.
 mödd, in Final Clauses, 346* *d*.
 mwy [o], 400.
 mynnaf, 330.
 mynegaf [i], 332 *a*.
 myrdd [o], 400 (note).
- nad (nä), *not*, 592.
 nid (ni), 590.
 nac (nä), *not*, 591.
 nac (nä), *nor*, 314.
 nag (nä), *than*, 346* *h*.
 nacaf, 330, 333.
 nachaf, nycha, 600.
 naddo, 600.
 nage, 600.
 naill ai, 314.
 nêb, 579.
 neithiwr, 598.
 nemmawr [o], 400.
 nes, in Time Clauses, 346* *a*; in
 Consecutive Clauses, 346* *e*, 352*a*,
 352*b*.
 neshäf [at], 329 *c*.
 neu, 314.
 nodedig [o], 402.
- o*, *from*, 398-404; verbs taking,
 332 *b*; after words denoting quan-
 tity, 400; after adjectives, 401;
 denoting the agent in verb-noun
 phrases, 346*b*.
- o*, *if*, 354 (note).
o achos, 404.
o amgylch, 404.
o blaid, 404.
o blegid, 404; = *for* (conj.), 314.
o dan, 404.
o ddeutu, 404.
o fesur, 404.
o fewn, 404.
o flaen, 404.
o gwmpas, 404.
o gylch, 404.
o herwydd, 404; = *for* (conj.), 314.
o ôl, 404.
o ran, 404.
 oddiallan, 404.
- oddiar, 404.
 oddieithr, 357.
 oddigerth, 357.
 odditan, 404.
 oddiwrth, 404, 441, 444.
 oedaf, 330.
 oes, 486, 487.
 ofnaf, 330, 369*a* (7).
 ôll, 337, 589.
 ond, 314, 357 (2).
 ond odid, 369*a* (8).
 onid (oni), interrogative particle, 370*a*.
 onid (oni), in Time Clauses, 346* *a*.
 onid (oni), in If- Clauses, 346* *f*, 354,
 355.
 onide, 600.
 os, 346* *f*, 354, 354*b*.
 os byth, 354*b*.
 osgoaf, 330.
 osiaf, 330.
- pā, 370*a*.
 pā fāth, 370*a*.
 pā gynniifer, 370*a*.
 paham, 370*a*.
 pa lē, p'lē, 370*a*.
 pa sawl, 370*a*.
 pa faint [o], 400.
 pa rai, 577.
 pa ün, 577.
 pallaf, 330.
 pan, in Time Clauses, 346* *a*.
 pan, in Causal Clauses, 346* *c*.
 paraf, 333, 369*a* (9).
 pawb, 589 (obs.).
 pē, 346* *f*, 355, 356; = *even if*,
 346* *g*.
 paid, peidiwch, 341*b* (2); peidio, 342
 (4).
 penodir, 324 (2).
 pēth, 382; — [o], 400.
 pō, 346* *h*.
 pōb, 589 (obs.).
 prif, 337.
 prin [o], 401.
 profaf, 369*a* (5).
 pryd, 346* *a*.
 pryd bynnag, 346* *a*.
 p'un, p'run, 370*a*.
 pwy, 370*a*.
 pwy bynnag, 574.

py, 451.

rhag, *from*, 429; in Final Clauses, 346° *d*; verbs taking, 332 *f*.

rhagor [o], 400.

rhagoraf [ar], 329 *b*.

rhai, 382.

rhaid, 369a (8).

rhoddaf [i], 332 *a*.

rhwng, 430.

rhwym [o], 401.

rhwystraf, 333.

rhyfeddaf [at], 329 *c*, 369a (6).

rhyfeddol [o], 402.

rhyfygaf, 330.

rhyw, 382.

Salem dir, 383.

sêf, 600, and Appendix.

Seion sail, 383.

serch, *though*, 346° *g*.

sicr [o], 401.

sicrhâf, 369a (9).

sydd, 488.

sylwaf [ar], 329 *b*.

synnaf [at], 329 *c*, 369a (6).

talaf [i], 332 *a*.

tan, 410.

tan, in Time Clauses, 346° *a*.

tanodd, 599.

taw, 346° and Appendix.

tebyg [o], 401.

teilwng [o], 401.

teilyngaf, 330.

tlawd, 336.

tosturiaf [wrth], 329 *d*.

trâ, *over*, 452; = *exceedingly*, 337.

trâ, in Time Clauses, 346° *a*.

trachefn, 598.

tradwy, 598.

trannoeth, 598.

trefnaf, 330, 333.

trennydd, 598.

tros, 411.

trosodd, 599.

truan o ddyn, 399.

trwodd, 599.

trwy, 412.

tuag (tua), 431.

tuag at, 431.

tybed, 600.

tybiaf, 369a (2).

tyngaf, 369a (1).

uchod, 599.

unig, 337.

uwch, 381, 432.

wedi, 433; in Time Clauses, 346° *a*,

347a, (obs. 2).

weithian, weithion, 598.

wele, 600.

wrth, 357, 434; verbs taking, 329 *d*, 332 *c*.

wyf, Pres. Indic. S. 3, 484-490.

y fâth, 382.

yfory, 598.

y gan, 397.

y neb, 574.

y sawl, 574.

ychwaneg [o], 400.

ychwanegaf [at], 332 *c*.

ychydig [o], 400.

ym, reflexive, 463-466.

ym mhen, 436.

ym mhlith, 436.

ym mysg, 436.

ymddanghosaf, 324 (1).

ymddiddanaf [a], 329 *a*.

ymdrechaf, 330.

ymhelias [a], 329 *a*.

ymladdaf [a], 329 *a*.

ymogelaf [rhag], 329.

ymosodaf [ar], 329 *b*.

ymroddaf [i], 329.

ymrysonaf [a], 329 *a*.

ymyraf [a], 329 *a*.

yn, *in*, 435-439; with verb-noun, 549-553.

yn (predicative), 304 (note), 324.

yn awr, 598.

yn erbyn, 436.

yn fore, 598.

yn Gymraeg, 439.

yn hwy, 598.

yn ôl, 436.

yn tân, 439.

yn tŷ, 439.

yng nghanol, 436.

yng nghylch, 436.

yng ngwydd, 436.

ynte, *or*, 314.

yntë = onidë, 600.

yr (*y*), *the*, 581-589.

yr (*y*), preverbal particle, 305 (note),

315 (2); in Adverb Clauses, 346*;

in Adjective Clauses, 362 (2); in.
Noun Clauses, 366; and Appendix.

yr hwn, 362, 573, 576.

yr hyn, 362, 575, 576.

ysgrifennaf [*at*], 332 *e*.

ystyir, 324 (2).

yw (*ydyw*), 485, 489.

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"Almost every grammatical system has its 'rationale,' capable of being comprehended by the mind, if the mind is kept steadily to it, and of serving as a clue to the facts; but . . . every one of the grammars following a different system, the student masters the rationale of none of them; and in consequence, after all his labour, he often ends by possessing of the science of grammar nothing but a heap of terms jumbled together in inextricable confusion."—MATTHEW ARNOLD.

The publishers (Messrs. SWAN SONNENSCHNEIN & Co., LTD Paternoster Square, London; THE MACMILLAN Co., New York) beg to call attention to the completion of the series of **Parallel Grammars**, which now includes Grammars of Greek, Latin, English, French, German, Spanish, Danish, and Welsh. This undertaking, on which the editor and a large staff of collaborators have been engaged for a number of years, has attracted the favourable notice of teachers both at home and abroad, and the series has been introduced either wholly or in part into many schools and colleges of the first rank: it is hoped that an even larger amount of favour may be accorded to it now that the series is complete.

Uniformity of Terminology and Uniformity of Classification are the distinguishing marks of this series; all the Grammars are constructed on the same plan, and the same terminology is used to describe identical grammatical features in different languages. The terminology employed is such as to command general acceptance, having been accepted and approved by the *Grammatical Society*—a society which was formed in 1886 for the express purpose of drawing up a scheme suitable for use in teaching different languages side by side, and which numbers among its members many eminent teachers from all parts of the United Kingdom and America. The principle of selection is that *the existing stock of grammatical terms is sufficient for its purpose, if used economically*; and the editor has been able to carry out his scheme without the introduction of new or unfamiliar terms. Those who are acquainted with the chaos which has hitherto reigned, and the bewilderment which is caused to pupils by the gratuitous use of two or three different terms where one

would suffice, will appreciate the labour which has been devoted to the simplification of terminology in the series. But the editor and his collaborateurs have not limited themselves to a reform of terminology. Far more than this has been done. The whole classification of the facts of language for the purposes of Syntax has been rendered more scientific, and at the same time more intelligible, by the adoption of a common point of view; and much attention has been given to the concise and accurate statement of rules, and to the exclusion of all that merely burdens without enlightening the pupil.

The principle of Uniformity in Grammar, first carried out in the Parallel Grammar Series, has been formally adopted by the German Ministry of Education (*Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben*, Easter, 1892), and is thus approved as both scientifically and practically sound by the highest educational authorities. But at present England is the only country which possesses a series in which these principles are carried out.

The Grammars are accompanied by Exercise Books, entitled **READERS AND WRITERS**, based on the following principles:—

1. The *Reader* is the centre of instruction. Each passage in it is designed (i.) to have a unity and interest of its own, sufficient to engage the attention of the pupil; (ii.) to exhibit, so far as circumstances permit, one dominant grammatical feature. Forms which cannot be understood grammatically without more knowledge than the pupil possesses at a particular stage are not altogether excluded, but they are treated as isolated words, and are simply translated (without grammatical explanation) in the Vocabulary or Preparations.

The Reader thus lends itself to the methodical learning and practising of grammar. Grammatical facts presented in concrete form in an interesting context are easily understood and remembered, and form the basis of that more complete and systematic knowledge which can only be acquired from a Grammar.

2. The *Writer* is based upon the subject matter and vocabulary of the Reader, and gives systematic practice in the dominant grammatical feature under consideration. The pupil is early introduced to the writing of *continuous passages*; these are at first built up out of separate sentences of easy construction, but gradually assume the character of connected prose in the proper sense of the term. No meaningless sentences or fragments of sentences are employed.

Reading, Writing and Grammar thus go hand in hand, and the knowledge acquired in each department is immediately utilized in the others. In this point, too, the system worked out by the Editor and his collaborateurs coincides in all its essential features with the best results of foreign experience.

3. The courses are so arranged as to present to the pupil the *important* before the *unimportant*, the less difficult before the more difficult. Grammatical details are reserved until the main outline of grammar has been mastered.

4. The terminology and classifications of the *Parallel Grammars* are employed throughout the Readers and Writers.

The method briefly indicated above is applied to all the languages ordinarily taught in schools, the teaching of which may thus be organised and concentrated on a uniform basis.

☞ For list of the Grammars and Readers in the Series see p. XVI.

SELECT OPINIONS ON THE SERIES AS A WHOLE.

"If it were only for starting a new point of view at a time when the market is flooded with grammars in which the same things are over and over again repeated, the Editor and his collaborateurs would deserve our gratitude. But for much more solid reasons this attempt deserves all encouragement. It marks a new departure, and is a real advance. Any one of these grammars may be used separately by student or teacher. They may be used with still greater advantage in combination."—The late H. NETTLESHIP, Corpus Professor of Latin in the Univ. of Oxford.

"Obviously, this parallel method has great advantages, not only because it avoids waste of effort in learning mere terminology, but because it gives facilities for the comparison of the different languages with regard to structure and idiom. . . . In general execution all these grammars are of exceptionally high merit."—H. BRADLEY, Jt. Ed. Murray's English Dict. (*Academy*).

"Professor Sonnenschein's conception of a series of Parallel Grammars was a happy one, and the execution of it on a large scale is a distinct service to the progress of grammatical science. The Latin Grammar and the Greek Grammar show exceptional acumen and exceptional fairness of judgment, qualities not often combined in one man."—W. G. HALE, Head Professor of Latin in the University of Chicago; Jt. Ed. of the *Classical Review*.

"I welcome the new series of 'Parallel Grammars' as a real advance in the direction of clear thought, brevity, so far as brevity is possible, and riddance of that superfluous naughtiness which refuses to call the same things by the same names."—C. COLBECK, M.A., Assistant Master at Harrow (*Journ. of Education*).

"I fully approve of your attempt to introduce something like harmony into the teaching of ancient and modern languages, and heartily sympathise with the object you have in view."—The late Rev. H. A. HOLDEN, M.A., LL.D., Examiner in London Univ.

"The series of *Parallel Grammars* is the first attempt to get rid of the perplexities and misunderstandings arising from the inconsistent terminology employed in the grammars of different languages."—The Rev. J. B. MAYOR, Litt.D., late Editor of the *Classical Review*.

"There can be no doubt that this system, if it can be satisfactorily carried out, will save much time to the teacher and much perplexity to the pupil."—P. GILES, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of Emmanuel College, and Reader in Comparative Philology in the University of Cambridge (*Classical Review*).

"After recommending the Parallel Grammar Series in many quarters, I cannot remember any one who was disappointed, or to whom the working out of the same system through various languages did not come as something of a revelation, for which they were intensely grateful. I am sure that no teacher who had once tried the effect of your arrangement of *Conditional Sentences* as against the traditional arrangement could be blind to the superiority of the former."—W. H. SECKER, M.A. Oxon., Aysgarth School, Yorkshire.

"We have for some years been using the 'Parallel Grammars' and 'Readers and Writers' intended to be studied along with them. We were led to introduce these text-books from a sense of the soundness of the educational principles on which they were based; experience has now taught us to value them also for the care and consistency with which these principles are carried out. We are convinced that it is an incalculable gain to the cause of systematic instruction in our school that we are using books which enable us to preserve uniformity in the grammar teaching of the languages, as well as to connect coherently translation and composition with this grammar teaching."—The Rev. A. JAMSON SMITH, M.A., Headmaster of K.E.S., Camp Hill, Birmingham.

"The recognition of the fact that the fundamental principles of grammar are common to all languages constitutes a conspicuous

merit of Sonnenschein's *Parallel Grammar Series*."—Professor FREDERIC SPENCER, in his *Chapters on the Aims and Practice of Teaching* (p. 88).

"It is with more than an ordinary sense of appreciation that we notice this really remarkable series of books. The very conception of so novel and difficult an enterprise would in itself be noteworthy. But the conception has been carried out with such signal skill and care, that the result may be said, with no exaggeration, to constitute an epoch in the history of our educational literature. These grammars will, in fact, convert what has been a perplexed wandering through a tangled forest into a secure journey through a well mapped-out country."—*Birmingham Daily Gazette*.

"The adoption of uniform methods of teaching must result in an enormous saving of time and energy for both teachers and taught."—*Catholic Times*.

"We have had frequent occasion to express our opinion of the various volumes in this very useful series, and of the general features which characterize them all; their spirit and system are now so well known to all teachers that it is hardly necessary to repeat those observations. The principle of familiarising a pupil with passages for translation before he has mastered many details of grammar, of bringing him to a knowledge of rules through the language from which experience collects them, rather than equipping him with a mass of words and forms long before he meets them in the literature—this principle is gradually growing to be more and more widely acknowledged as a sound one.

Few can doubt the very great advantage of having some general principles established, which can be illustrated in different languages, either by way of similarity or contrast. It is on this system of proceeding from the known to the unknown that the *Parallel Grammar Series* is based."—*Educational Review*.

FOREIGN OPINIONS ON THE SERIES AS A WHOLE.

"This Series is unique in its kind, so far as I know. We in Germany have nothing similar. At the Berlin School Conference (December, 1890) Schiller spoke on the point, maintaining that we ought to have *Parallel Grammars*, in connexion with the question how instruction might be simplified by improvements in method. The new Prussian Scheme of Instruction of 1891 lays it down that 'in the choice of a Latin Grammar attention should be paid to its being not too different in its whole plan and construction

from the Greek Grammar which is to be used side by side with it; (p. 25); and again, 'in the choice of an English and French Grammar, care should be taken that they are not too different in their plan and construction, and that the terminology be here the same as in other languages' (p. 87). Though the term 'Parallel Grammars' is not here employed, yet the idea is the same as that which lies at the basis of the admirable 'Parallel Grammar Series,' edited by Sonnenschein. It is his merit to have been the first to carry out with brilliant success the principle of simplifying grammatical terminology, and, above all, of employing *the same terminology* in all the languages learned in schools. In my pamphlet called *Solved and Unsolved Problems of Method* (Berlin, Springer, 1892), I reckoned the question of Parallel Grammars as still unsolved for Germany, and assigned to Sonnenschein the credit of having solved it for England. I now repeat what I there said. We in Germany have only to take the English 'Parallel Grammar Series' as a model, and to learn from Sonnenschein how to construct a similar series for our own country. He has shown that parallelism involves no revolution in terminology, but, on the contrary, that it is possible to make the old established terms serve the purpose, if they be properly and *economically* used. The whole system is excellent, and may be most warmly recommended to the attention of all those who are interested in the production of a series of Parallel Grammars."—W. MANGOLD, Ph.D., Professor in the Askanisches Gymnasium, Berlin. (Translated.)

"An organic unity of grammars, such as Sonnenschein's series, is as yet lacking in Germany, although it would indisputably be of great service."—Dr. J. SITZLER, in *Wochenschrift für Klassische Philologie* (Translated).

"A year ago I expressed my unqualified approval of the Parallel Grammar Series; since then my admiration for it has only increased, in proportion as I have more fully understood the principles on which it is based and their application. Mr. Sonnenschein has deserved well of his country in taking the initiative in this work, which he has succeeded in carrying to a happy issue. Shall we ever have a similar series for our own country? That day, the teaching of languages will have taken an immense step forward."—Dr. J. KEELHOF, Professor at the Athénée Royal, Tongres, Belgium; *Revue de l'instruction publique* (Translated).

SELECT OPINIONS ON THE SEVERAL VOLUMES.

GREEK GRAMMAR. *

"It is no exaggeration to say that the position of this book is quite *unique*. . . . For brevity, lucidity, general accuracy, and consistency of opinion, we know of no book on Greek Syntax in English that can be compared to this."—*Educational Review*.

"We are glad to welcome and to recommend, if the book requires it after three years' test, Professor Sonnenschein's second edition of his *Greek Accidence*. We had the pleasure of drawing attention to its merits on its first appearance, and having used it ourselves for the purpose of practical teaching, we can testify still more strongly to its value. One of its superlative merits is that a student can use it without the aid of a teacher to explain the explanation, and yet with all this clearness and conciseness, there is a fulness of information which leaves nothing to be desired on any important point."—*Educational Review*.

"I have found it *singularly* interesting, admirable in clearness and throwing real light (as it seems to me) on some perplexing points of Syntax."—S. H. BUTCHER, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh.

"I hold and have often expressed the opinion, that for Attic Accidence and Syntax yours is absolutely the best school grammar extant."—GILBERT MURRAY, M.A., Professor of Greek in the University of Glasgow.

"Your *Greek Accidence* has been in use here for five years, and we wish to say that we have found it invaluable as combining the most recent results of research into pure Attic forms with an admirable arrangement for practical teaching. Its method and completeness, we have no hesitation in saying, render it superior to any other Greek Grammar for school purposes. The list of irregular verbs and the appendix on accents have proved especially useful."—C. D. CHAMBERS, M.A., Oxon.; E. C. OWEN, M.A., Oxon., Assistant Masters at Bromsgrove School.

"The reviewer believes it his duty to record his opinion that

* A *Supplement* to the *Accidence* has just been added (Sept., 1898), containing irregularities in declension and comparison, and serving also as an index to the nouns and adjectives. This will be bound up with the *Accidence*, but may also be had separately; see p. XVI.

this is the best book of the kind with which he is familiar. For system, plan, graphic presentment, and accuracy of exposition, it is admirably adapted for school use; its method is that of the future. The *Accidence* combines completeness and accuracy in such a way as to make it indispensable to teacher and learner alike. The *Syntax* marks a new departure from accepted routine: too much praise cannot be bestowed on the method adopted and the excellent manner in which it has been developed in detail. Its framework is a *κρίμα ἐς δεῖ*, admitting of improvement without substantial alteration."—The Rev. J. DONOVAN, M.A., late Professor of Classics in Stonyhurst College (*Classical Review*).

"The adaptation to the present state of knowledge seems most judiciously carried out."—D. B. MOXRO, M.A., Provost of Oriel College, Oxford.

"Prof. Sonnenschein's *Greek Grammar* is admirably clear in its arrangement, and, at the same time, comprehensive in its scope. All that is unimportant and exceptional is duly subordinated to the typical and normal forms. The work deserves to be extensively used in all English-speaking countries."—J. E. SANDYS, Litt. D., Public Orator in the University of Cambridge.

"I have constantly used Professor Sonnenschein's *Greek Grammar* ever since it came out, and it appears to me distinctly the best Greek Grammar I know for daily use. It is wonderful to find so much information contained in a book of such small bulk, and yet presented in an interesting form. It is an admirable piece of work, and a constant help to the University teacher."—G. R. SCOTT, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Merton College, Oxford.

"Prof. Sonnenschein's *Greek Grammar* is admirably adapted for teaching purposes. The information is presented in a manner at once lucid and exact, and the student who advances to more elaborate works will find that he has nothing to unlearn."—P. GILES, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of Emmanuel College, and Reader in Comparative Philology in the University of Cambridge.

"Excellent both in plan and execution. It has the advantage of others in being simple, to the point, and running on a broad gauge line that suits all the cognate languages. By turning to account the previous familiarity which boys are bound to have with general Grammar and the system of Latin Grammar, you have made their path easier towards learning Greek; and everything is so clear and precise that the stupid ones have little excuse left except that of disinclination."—J. Y. SARGENT, M.A., late Fellow and Tutor of Magdalen College, Oxford.

"This is far the best *Greek Accidence* that I have ever had to deal with; the conspectus of the Verbs, each on its own page, is admirable."—The Rev. E. D. STONE, M.A., of Broadstairs, late Assistant Master at Eton College.

"The Master of the Sixth Form here has found that the *Greek Syntax* supplies a distant want."—J. E. KING, M.A., Head Master of Manchester Grammar School.

"I like the book very much and think it ought to have a wide circulation. You have got a wonderful amount into it and expressed it all in very clear and concise terms."—H. RICHARDS, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Wadham College, Oxford.

"The idea and principles of this series thoroughly commend themselves to me."—F. CHATTERTON RICHARDS, M.A., Fellow of Hertford College, Oxford, and Prof. of Greek in Univ. Coll., Cardiff.

"Superior to anything of the kind I have as yet used or seen."—W. G. RUSHBROOKE, LL.M., Cantab.

"I am sure the labour of learning Greek would have been much less to me if I had had such a book."—F. C. CONYBEARE, M.A., Fellow of Univ. Coll., Oxford.

"Not only the best handbook of the day for reference, but also, so far as concerns the ordinary needs of teachers and students, beyond all question the most luminous and really adequate digest of modern scholarship."—W. H. SECKER, M.A., Oxon, Aysgarth School, Yorkshire.

"Admirable both in design and execution, and it ought to have a tremendous circulation."—W. PETERSON, M.A., Oxon., LL.D., Principal of the MacGill University, Montreal.

"It is just the sort of book I believe in for school use. It groups the essentials in convenient order, without verbiage. It deals with facts. It throws the usual into strong relief, and subordinates the exceptional. It utilizes the knowledge of grammar already attained by the pupil."—Prof. B. J. WHEELER, of Cornell Univ., N.Y.

"I find the *Greek Accidence* a marvel of compactness. I am a thorough believer in this method of teaching Greek Grammar to beginners. No wonder Greek studies have to fight their way, when boys are set to learning long lists of exceptions at the outset. Your *Syntax* is just the thing that is wanted. I am not a disciple of parallelism as seen in some tables of comparison, where everything is sacrificed to a wooden uniformity; but I am in favour of parallel syntax when you naturally apply what Latin you know to what Greek you are learning to know. You have certainly hit the mean."—H. WEIR SMYTH, Ph.D., Professor of Greek in Bryn Mawr

College, Philadelphia, author of *The Greek Dialects* (Oxford, 1894).

"A most attractive book in form and appearance. The idea of teaching Greek forms by referring to the student's previous acquaintance with Latin is especially to be commended."—Prof. MARTIN L. D'OOGH, of the University of Michigan.

"Sonnenschein's *Greek Syntax*, like his *Accidence*, is excellently adapted for practical use: his treatment of the Cases, for example, is a model of clearness and perfection of form and matter: it is like a beautifully arranged garden on which the eye rests with satisfaction, and if one desires to examine all the marvellous growth of the language in detail, space and light are provided. The reader soon finds himself at home in it, and is delighted at the way in which one part fits into the other in this work of art."—Dr. F. MÜLLER (*Berliner Philologische Wochenschrift*; trans.).

"A distinct advance upon any British Greek Grammar, being thoroughly in accordance with the latest researches as to correct Attic forms, and with all well-ascertained philological facts which are likely to prove helpful to the learner."—*Univ. Correspondent*.

"Subordination of detail, clearness of outline, brevity and accuracy in rules—of these a surfeit is impossible, and they are well realized. In *Syntax*, induction has superseded deduction: a group of examples followed, not preceded, by the rule is an excellent inversion of the old system."—*Preparatory Schools Review*.

"Dr. Sandys' *First Greek Reader and Writer* will be found a most valuable addition to the series. Our examination enables us to say that the matter of this volume is most judiciously chosen and arranged, the difficulties carefully graduated, and the exercises much more interesting than is usual in such books. One reason for this interest is that a great number of the passages consist of striking selections from Dr. Sandys' own reading (skilfully simplified where necessary), both isolated sentences and consecutive passages. We can warmly recommend its accuracy, careful arrangement and admirable simplicity."—*Educational Review*.

"Carefully graduated."—*Guardian*.

"A distinct improvement on the usual style."—*Univ. Corresp.*

"A worthy companion to Prof. Sonnenschein's Greek Grammar."—*Public Schools Year Book*.

"I have carefully examined Sandys' work and must pronounce it a model of industry, philological acuteness and didactic skill, deserving of our attention and imitation."—Dr. F. MÜLLER (*Berl. Phil. Wochenschrift*, transl.).

LATIN GRAMMAR.

"Mr. Sonnenschein's *Latin Accidence* is all that might be expected of so accomplished a scholar."—The late H. NETTLESHIP, Corpus Professor of Latin in the University of Oxford.

"Prof. Sonnenschein's *Latin Grammar* is a valuable book. The information is conveyed in language at once terse and lucid; good judgment has been shown in the selection of matter as well as in its presentment; and great care has been taken about the terminology—an important point."—J. S. REID, Litt. D., Fellow and Tutor of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge.

"I consider Prof. Sonnenschein's *Latin Grammar* excellent, on account both of the lucidity of its arrangement, which makes it easy to learn, and of the soundness of its principles, which ensures that there is nothing to unlearn."—S. G. OWEN, M.A., Censor and Classical Tutor of Christ Church, Oxford.

"The whole book is characterised by admirable simplicity. . . . It would be difficult to imagine a more pleasant task for a teacher than to have an intelligent class before him, with this book in his hands."—*Education*.

"A student brought up upon the set of grammars to which this one belongs could not fail to have fundamental grammatical ideas very clearly and firmly fixed in his mind."—W. G. HALE, Head Professor of Latin in the University of Chicago (*Classical Review*).

"The best Latin Grammar I have seen."—J. MACLEOD, H.M.I.S.

"The **First Latin Reader and Writer** by Mr. Dix is the best of all the elementary books for teaching Latin with which I am acquainted."—The late Rev. R. H. QUICK, M.A.

"May be safely recommended to those who appreciate the importance of not deferring translation till the system of grammar is mastered: it is simple, sound and practical."—*Education*.

"The **Second Latin Reader and Writer** makes a very favourable impression, both as a bit of teaching, and as a Latin grammatical work."—*Guardian*.

"The **Third Latin Reader and Writer** carries out the principle of this excellent series with remarkable skill. The whole book deserves praise for its variety, liveliness, and workable character."—*Educ. Rev.* "Admirably constructed."—*Glasg. Herald*.

"The selections in the **Fourth Latin Reader and Writer** (*Livy Lessons*) are good, the notes are useful, and the eighteen pages of 'exercises for retranslation,' are attractive in subject and style."—*Guardian*. "Eminently interesting."—*Schl. Board Chron.*

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

"English appears to lend itself well to the general plan of the series. Both *Accidence* and *Analysis and Syntax* have been compiled with careful reference to the highest authorities, and arranged in a manner at once logical and attractive."—*Education*. "Strikingly fresh and clear and sound."—*Educational Times*. "It is a real pleasure to be able to recommend this work heartily."—*Private Schoolmaster*. "In the *English Examples and Exercises* (Part I.) Miss Woods has put together a series of outline lessons and exercises in English *Accidence*. The definitions are terse and clear, and the examples, of which there are a great number, seem to be skilfully selected."—*University Correspondent*. "The collection of examples for analysis (Part II.), by Miss Coope, will be a most effective instrument in the hands of any teacher of English."—*Education*. "The illustrative examples in the *Steps to English Parsing and Analysis* (Vol. I.), by the Misses Ramsay, are suitable and clear. . . . Many of the stories are intrinsically interesting and may render the associations of Grammar more pleasant than some children find them."—*Schoolmaster*. "Carefully graded to suit the pupil's progress."—*Educ. Review*. "An admirable collection of exercises constructed on principles the practice of which means the destruction of learning grammar by rote."—*Glasgow Herald*. "May do much to introduce more satisfactory methods for the early teaching of English."—*Modern Languages*. "Cannot fail to aid in achieving the chief end of education—the development of the learner's intelligence."—*Literary World*. "A class that had worked through this book would find Latin prose much easier than when taught in the ordinary way."—*Preparatory Schools' Review*. "A carefully designed and thoughtfully written manual, which can be honestly recommended."—*The Teacher's Aid*.

FRENCH GRAMMAR.

"Especial praise must be given to Prof. Moriarty's thoughtful and original book on French *Accidence*. It has the merit of being the first French Grammar for English use that puts the use of the 'Conditional' in its true light."—H. BRADLEY (*Academy*).

"Mr. Moriarty's application of the Parallel Grammar programme to French is carried out in a masterly fashion."—*Journ. of Educ.*

"We have tested the rules and index by every means known to us, and they have stood the test exceedingly well."—*Guardian*.

"Commends itself by the admirable clearness of every part; the best results may be confidently expected."—*Glasgow Herald*.

"The Preparatory French Course is a capital book for beginners. . . . The exercises form connected narratives—a decidedly good feature—and the grammatical facts selected are suited to the capacities of young learners."—*Guardian*.

"The lessons seem characterised by clearness of principle, careful graduation of matter, and fulness of exercises."—*Schoolmaster*.

"The work of an able teacher."—*Modern Languages*.

"Cannot fail to be of the greatest utility."—*Glasgow Herald*.

"It is almost enough to say of this First French Reader and Writer that it is the last published volume of the Parallel Grammar Series; for Mr. Morich's name is sufficient guarantee for the soundness and thoroughness of the execution."—*Journal of Education*.

"To say that it is the best with which we are acquainted would be less than fair to it, for it would imply a comparison, whereas it stands alone, and has the merit of introducing a system so natural, and so evidently the best, that one can only wonder that it has never been worked out before."—*Glasgow Herald*.

"The plan [of basing exercises in writing upon the subject matter and vocabulary of the Reader] is one which cannot be too highly recommended. M. Barbier is an able exponent of the method (Second French Reader and Writer)."—*Guardian*.

"The Second French Writer consists of simple sentences founded on the Reader, a plan of which we have often expressed our approval."—*Journal of Education*.

"The books contained in this series deserves a high place in the list of student's manuals, both as regards execution, general get-up, and cost."—*The Literary World*.

"The somewhat complicated task of blending grammar, translation, and composition together has been ably performed by M. Barbier, whose little volume we warmly recommend as an excellent exponent of an intelligent system."—*Glasgow Herald*.

"The passages in the Third French Reader and Writer are skilfully selected to illustrate special points of Syntax explained in the Grammar belonging to this series."—*Guardian*.

"M. Barbé has performed his task in a very satisfactory way."—*Scholastic Globe*.

"The French part of the volume contains a well-selected series of most interesting extracts from the best modern authors. The English extracts for translation into French are exceedingly skilful adaptations."—*Glasgow Herald*.

GERMAN GRAMMAR.

"Clear, precise and practical, and very inviting to the eye."—*Journal of Education*.

"Uniformly good."—*Education*.

"The German Syntax is an excellent and scholarly piece of work."—*Guardian*.

"Great care has evidently been bestowed on the Accidence."—The late Professor H. NETTLESHIP (*Athenæum*).

"Dr. Meyer ist mit seiner Arbeit aus der grossen Masse unverdaulicher deutscher Schulbücher für Engländer einen tüchtigen Schritt hervorgetreten."—*Im Ausland*.

"It would be difficult to give too high praise to the **First German Reader and Writer** as a book for *young* beginners. In method, arrangement, selection of pieces, and in clearness of print, it is just what an elementary Reader and exercise book should be. We know several teachers who are using it, and who entirely endorse our opinion."—*Modern Language Monthly*.

"An admirable bit of work, the pieces chosen being all very simple without being dull or foolish."—*Journal of Education*.

"Fulfills in almost every respect the conditions of a perfect class book for junior pupils in German."—*Practical Teacher*.

"Mr. Macgowan (in the **Second German Reader and Writer**) has done his part with the same thoroughness as Professor Son-nenschein."—*Journal of Education*.

"The plan of these Readers and Writers has our entire approval."—*Guardian*.

"There can be no doubt whatever that it (retranslation) materially assists the learner, especially when it is practised in so clear and skilful a way as in this book."—*Education*.

"The **Third German Reader and Writer** seems as near perfection as such a compilation could well be. It is sure to be welcomed by teachers and pupils alike; for it will lessen the labour of both, without, in any sense, encouraging careless or slovenly work."—*Glasgow Herald*.

"Fully worthy to take a place in this admirable series."—*Modern Languages*.

"The English-German Vocabulary is written on very sensible lines, and at once commends itself."—*Guardian*.

"An additional advantage is that all the passages refer to matters of German history or legend, thus, in some degree, interesting the student in the history as well as the language of Germany." | *Bookseller*. "A well-designed course."—*Scotsman*.

SPANISH GRAMMAR.

"These books follow the admirable plan laid down for this series by Professor E. A. Sonnenschein. They are thoroughly and carefully done, and will prove of the highest service."—*Scotsman*.

"Altogether it would be difficult to find two better books to put into the hands of a learner."—*Glasgow Herald*.

"The well-known method of the series is faithfully adhered to throughout these works, which are likely to prove serviceable for private students as well as for schools."—*Daily Chronicle*.

"For the Spanish Reader and Writer we have nothing but praise."—*Literary World*.

DANO-NORWEGIAN READER.

"The prose pieces have been selected with much care and judgment, and the English version is both literal and accurate. . . . Altogether the book seems admirably fitted to fulfil its object, and may be safely recommended."—*Guardian*.

"English students of Danish and Norwegian will find their efforts greatly lightened by this book."—*Liverpool Post*.

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